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E L E M E N T S

O F

NATURAL HISTORY

A N D

C H E M I S T R Y.

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W I T H

An Alphabetical Comparative View of the Ancient and Modern
Names of CHEMICAL SUBSTANCES, with all the TABLES,
and a Complete INDEX.

To which is prefixed by the TRANSLATOR,

A PREFACE, containing Strictures on the History and present
State of CHEMISTRY; with Observations on the Positions,
Facts, and Arguments, urged for and against the ANTIPHLO-
GISTIC THEORY, and the NEW NOMENCLATURE, by
Messrs LAVOISIER, PRIESTLEY, KIRWAN, KEIR, SAGE, &c.

I N T H R E E V O L U M E S.

V O L. III.

L O N D O N:

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C H E M I S T R Y.

P A R T III. *continued.*

C H A P. VII.

Of Vegetable Acids, formed by the Action of Fire, and by the Nitric Acid.

IT has been long known to chemists, that many vegetable matters afford, by distillation, phlegms, or acid liquors : these saline substances, altered by fire, were, however, but little attended to. Since such a number of acids have been discovered, really distinct from one another, either in their intimate nature, or in the proportion of their principles, many of these salts have been found to possess peculiar and distinctive properties. It has been also ascertained that some acids act, like heat, on vegetable matters, and that the nitric acid,

in particular, converts most of them into acids. These new, or newly modified salts, need to be carefully examined, in order that we may acquire a knowledge of their nature. We cannot avoid remarking, in the first place, that there must be a general analogy of nature, or formation, among vegetable acids, produced by the action of heat: On account of that analogy, we give them the generic name of empyreumatic salts; and apply to each of them, as a specific distinction, the syllable *pyro*, joined to a term indicating the origin of the salt; thus we say, the *pyro-tartareous*, the *pyro-mucous*, and the *pyro-ligneous* acids.

§ I. *Of the Pyro-Tartareous Acid.*

IT has been already mentioned, that, by the distillation of the tartareous acidulum, an acid phlegm is obtained, which is not the pure tartareous acid, but that acid altered in a particular manner. The hydrogenous gas, and the carbonic acid gas, that are, at the same time, disengaged, shew plainly that such an alteration must take place; for these can only be produced in consequence of the decomposition of the acid of tartar. As this alteration is owing to the action of heat, and as an oil, mixed with the distilled acid, is at the same time volatilized, which modifies its colour, we have therefore called that acid the *pyro-tartareous*, and its saline combinations *pyro-tartarites*, according to the laws of our nomenclature.

The first chemists who made experiments on this matter with any degree of accuracy, ascertained, that, by distilling about a quarter of a pound of tartar, there might be obtained an acid phlegm of a very pungent
smell,

smell, or pyro-tartareous acid. The academicians of Dijon represent the secondary rectification or distillation of this acid, which has been recommended by so many authors, as attended with one very great difficulty:—notwithstanding every precaution which they could adopt to moderate the fire, and give room to the vapours, they always found the liquid to rise so quickly as to burst the vessels containing it into pieces. This phenomenon they attribute to the action of gas produced by the decomposition of the acid, and compressed by the oil; which pressure it at length overcomes, as it is more dilated. Besides, the rectification is not very necessary, as the acid separated from the oil by the still-pipe, is so pure as to exhibit all its distinctive characteristics.

The pyro-tartareous acid has an empyreumatic taste and smell. It does not redden violets, but it produces that effect on turnsole and blue paper: It disengages the carbonic acid from its bases with a lively effervescence. With the earths and alkalis it forms salts very different from those which the tartareous acid forms with the same bases. These saline compounds have not yet been examined; only, we know the pyro-tartarites of potash and soda to be soluble in cold water, and crystallizable: the acid decomposes nitrate of silver, producing from it a grey precipitate; it by degrees renders nitrate of mercury turbid; it does not decompose calcareous muriate; and the sulphuric acid decomposes its neutral salts by distillation.

Chemists, before hydrogen, carbonaceous matter, and oxygen, were understood to be the sole and genuine component principles of all vegetable acids, constituting different acids, only by being united in different proportions, had adopted opinions very remote from the

truth, concerning the nature of this acid, obtained by distillation from tartar. Venel asserted it to be acid of nitre. M. Monnet concluded, from a more accurate investigation of its nature, that it was muriatic acid disguised by oil and mucilage. But, although Scheele found tartar to contain a little muriatic acid, yet the cubic form of the neutral salt produced by the union of the pyro-tartareous acid with soda, and the precipitation of nitrate of mercury by this acid, the two facts on which M. Monnet establishes the identity of the pyro-tartareous with the muriatic acid, are not sufficient evidence to induce modern chemists to assent to the conclusion deduced from them. Besides, the chemists of Dijon have repeated the same experiments without obtaining the same results; nor have Messrs Berthollet, Spielman, and Corvinus, been more successful. On the contrary, it is highly probable, that the principles of the pyro-tartareous acid, are the same with those of the acid of tartar itself; and that the two acids differ only in the proportion of their principles: the smell and taste of this empyreumatic acid, its not being susceptible of crystallization, and all its other properties, and still more, the disengagement of oil and carbonic gas from the tartareous acidulum, when the pyro-tartareous acid is formed,—concur to prove the truth of what is here asserted.

The character of this empyreumatic acid has not yet been sufficiently investigated, to enable us to determine the order of its chemical affinities with earthy, alkaline, and metallic bases.

§ II. *Of the Pyro-Mucous Acid.*

THE acid which we denominate Pyro-mucous, is that obtained from insipid, saccharine, gummy, farinaceous, &c. mucilages, which was, at first, denominated by M. de Morveau, the syrupous acid. Chemists have long known that sugar affords, by distillation, a pretty strong acid phlegm. Neuman, Cartheuser, Geoffroy, and Bucquet have made particular mention of that acid, but without having examined its properties. M. Schrickel has examined its nature with more minute attention than any other chemist.

By distilling 16 ounces of sugar, M. Schrickel obtained 6 drachms of phlegm, which passed into the receiver in the form of white vapour, and was condensed into unctuous striæ, of a pungent smell, like that of horseradish, or bitter almonds, roasted; of an acid, acrid, and bitter taste, and of a red yellow colour. He rectified this acid upon clay; it then passed clear, with a less pungent smell, and a sour taste. This acid, when thus purified, did not crystallize: but when exposed to cold, the aqueous part froze, and that part which still remained liquid became much more concentrated.

M. de Morveau observed, when preparing the pyromucous acid by the distillation of sugar, that the bottom of the retort was corroded during the operation. He does not attribute that to the acid, as it exhibits no such property, when rectified, or when left long in the glass; but rather to the action and adhesion of the carbure of iron, which exists in the coal that remains after the decomposition of the sugar, and had been violently heated. This acid, therefore, cannot be concentrated by volatilizing the water that is united with it, as the

salt is no less volatile than the fluid. This acid, according to M. Morveau, exists in molasses, and renders them deliquescent and not susceptible of chrySTALLIZATION.

The pyro-mucous acid, when concentrated by freezing, is very pungent, and communicates a deep red to blue vegetable colours. It produces red spots on the skin, as was long ago observed by Cartheuser; and the spots thus produced, destroy the epidermis before they disappear. When exposed to fire, it is totally volatilized, leaving no residue, but a brown mark on the place where it lay. Most of it may be converted into carbonic acid gas, and hydrogenous gas, by distilling it, with proper precautions, in close vessels: it now affords a more copious carbonaceous residue than when heated in open vessels. A part is volatilized without alteration.

When combined with barytes, magnesia, lime, potash, soda, and ammoniac, it forms neutral salts, which we call *pyro-mucites*, the properties of which have not yet been examined with sufficient care, but which differ from all other known neutral salts. It disengages the carbonic acid from all of these alkaline bases with a lively effervescence.

The property of dissolving gold was formerly ascribed to the spirit of honey; but it appears for certain, that the pyro-mucous acid does not affect either that metal, or platina, or silver, or even mercury; but it might possibly dissolve the oxides of these metals. This acid corrodes lead, becoming opaque itself on the occasion; which alteration it owes to the oxide of lead which it forms. Pyromucite of lead is in oblong crystals. It acts upon copper, and becomes green by the reaction of that metal; it dissolves tin; it acts upon iron, and combines with that metal to form crystals.

Its chemical affinities have been determined by M. de Morveau in the following order ; Potash, soda, barytes, lime, magnesia, ammoniac, aluminous earth, metallic oxides, water, alcohol.

This empyreumatic acid has not, as yet, been applied to any purpose. Spirit of honey, of manna, &c. were formerly made use of in pharmacy ; but the use of them has been long given up.

§ III. *Of the Pyro-ligneous Acid.*

WOOD, especially beech, birch, and box-trees, afford, by distillation, a brown acid liquor, of a pretty strong, peculiar smell, which reddens blue vegetable colours, and effervesces with alkaline carbonates. Boerhaave was acquainted with the product of box, juniper, oak, and *gayac* : but the chemists who have repeated Boerhaave's process, have not examined the nature and peculiar properties of this acid. M. Goetting, in the year 1779, first published, in Crel's Journal, a memoir on the acid of wood, and more especially on its union with alcohol. That chemist distilled the bark of birch in an iron retort ; he obtained a brown, oily, acid product, which he left to settle for three months ; at the end of that time, he observed drops of oil swimming on its surface, which having separated by filtration, he poured into the filtrated liquor a solution of potash. A lively effervescence took place ; the liquor assumed a blood-red colour, and afforded, after being saturated with alkali, and evaporated, a black salt, which was melted in an iron pan, and purified by a second solution, and a second evaporation.

The pyro-ligneous acid may be also rectified by distillation, according to M. Goettling. The pyro-lignite of potash, formed of this rectified acid, becomes very hot when brought into contact with the sulphuric acid, and affords pyro-ligneous acid in a state of considerable purity. That chemist, to whom we are indebted for these facts, observes, that the pyro-ligneous acid, when separated by the sulphuric acid, has no longer an empyreumatic odour, but a smell of garlic.

The chemists of Dijon extracted this acid from beech, by distillation, and afterwards rectified the liquid product: 55 ounces of this wood, well dried, and in shavings, afforded 17 ounces of rectified acid, of an amber colour, not mixed with oil, and of which the gravity was to that of distilled water in the proportion of 49 to 48: 23½ ounces of lime-water were required to saturate an ounce of this acid. When exposed to a gentle heat, it ascends in vapour. A strong heat decomposes this, as well as all other vegetable acids. It cannot be obtained in a concrete form.

It combines with earthy and alkaline bases, and forms with them peculiar salts which we call pyro-lignites of aluminous earth, barytes, magnesia, lime, potash, soda, and ammoniac. These salts have not yet been examined with sufficient care, to enable us to give here a particular account of them. M. Eloy Boursier de Clervaux has communicated, in the Lectures of Chemistry of Dijon, some experiments very suitable to determine the elective attractions of the pyro-ligneous acid. Calcareous and barytic earths adhere to it with greater obstinacy than the alkalis; lime has a stronger affinity with it than barytes; and magnesia a stronger than ammoniac: and even these affinities may serve to distinguish it from most other

other vegetable acids. It acts also upon many of the metals, and dissolves most of their oxides.

All kinds of wood, it appears, would afford the same acid by distillation; for box, birch, and beech agree in affording one acid. But much enquiry and many experiments are necessary, before we can be fully acquainted with the characteristic properties of this acid.

§ IV. *Of Vegetable Acids, formed by the Nitric Acid.*

BERGMAN has proved, that the nitric acid converts sugar into an acid, which, being at first thought peculiar and different from all others, was therefore called the Saccharine Acid. Scheele has shown this salt to be precisely the same with that which is, in part, neutralized by potash, in salt of sorrel: this very salt is therefore in every respect the same with the oxalic acid. Several modern chemists, and especially M. Berthollet, have proved, that almost all animal and vegetable matters afford this acid, when treated with the acid of nitre. It is therefore certain, that the base or radical principle of the oxalic acid exists in a great many bodies, and, in general, in all bodies which have been formed by vegetation, or the functions of animal life. The nitric acid acts in an equal and uniform manner on all such substances; it always gives up to them either more or less of its oxygen, and passes into the state of nitrous acid, nitrous gas, or even azotic gas, according as it is deprived of a greater or a less proportion of its oxygen. As the base, or radical principle of the oxalic acid, is more or less copious in the various organic matters in which it is found, these matters afford more or less of this acid, when treated with nitric acid. At the same time,

time, when the acid of nitre is decomposed by organic substances, together with nitrous or azotic gas, there is also disengaged a certain quantity of carbonic acid gas, which proves the organic matter to have lost a part of its carbonaceous substance, and, at the same time, shews the oxalic acid, thus produced, to contain less of that principle than the substance from which it is obtained. Since a number of vegetable acids, particularly the tartareous acid, &c. pass into the state of oxalic acid, in consequence of being exposed to the action of nitrous acid; and since carbonic acid is disengaged while this change takes place; it follows plainly, therefore, that all the vegetable acids have the same radical principle, and differ only in their proportions of oxigene.

In the *Nouvelles de la Republique de Lettres* for the year 1785, No. 42, and 44, it was related, that M. Kosegarten, by distilling nitric acid on camphor, eight times successively, had obtained from that matter a concrete acid, in parallelipiped crystals, of bitter taste, and capable of reddening the tincture of violets and turnsole. That salt, according to this chemist, differs from oxalic acid, as being incapable of separating lime from the muriatic acid. With potash it forms a salt in regular hexagons; with soda, a salt in irregular crystals; with ammoniac, prismatic or needled crystals; with magnesia, a soluble, pulverulent salt. It dissolves copper, iron, bismuth, zinc, arsenic, and cobalt. But these facts, which have not yet received confirmation, are not sufficient to enable us to enter into a minute account of the properties of this acid, which is, perhaps, nothing but a particular modification of some one of those of which we have already spoken. And if farther experiments on this acid shall discover it to possess peculiar properties, different from those of the other acids, its nature and characteristic

characteristic properties must then be examined under the name of the camphoric acid, and its neutral salts will be called camphorates.

M. Brugnatelli discovered, in the year 1787, that cork, on which he distilled four times its own weight of nitrous acid, left a yellowish mass, thick, acid, soluble in water, and of a sour or rather a bitter taste. This acid is not susceptible of crystallization; when evaporated by a strong heat, it takes the form of a viscous mass, like wax, which is so soft that it may be moulded with the fingers. It is soluble in alcohol; on burning coals it is reduced to a coal without inflammation; with earths and alkalis it forms deliquescent salts, many of which crystallize: lastly, it has as strong an affinity with lime as the oxalic acid, and forms with that earth a salt that is not soluble in water, but may be dissolved in muriatic acid. Without presuming to speak decisively of the peculiar nature of this acid, M. Brugnatelli appears, however, to think it different from the oxalic acid. Future experiments must determine whether this be really a peculiar acid meriting a separate examination; and we must, in the same manner, leave the particular nature of that which has been discovered by Messrs Proust and Angulo, in the neighbourhood of Madrid, on the surfaces of grey pease, in vesiculæ at the extremity of the hairs of that leguminous plant, equally undetermined.

Thus we have given an account of all known vegetable acids. We have still, however, to treat of those which are formed by fermentation. But as the chief, nay, the only one of these acids that is known, is produced in consequence of an alteration taking place on liquors that are already fermented, we will give its history immediately after that of spirituous fermentation, and its product,

C H A P. VIII.

Of Saccharine Matter, Gums, and Mucilages.

THE saccharine matter, which many chemists think to be a sort of essential salt, is found in a great many vegetables, and is to be considered as one of their immediate principles.—The maple, the birch, the red beet, the parsnip, the grape, wheat, &c. are found to contain it. Margraf extracted it from most of these vegetables. The petals of many flowers, and the nectaria placed in those organs prepare a principle of this kind.

The sugar cane, *arundo saccharifera*, is the plant which contains the most of it, and from which it is extracted with the greatest advantage. The sugar canes are crushed to pieces between two iron cylinders, in a perpendicular position. The expressed juice falls upon a plain surface underneath; and is called *melasses*. It runs off this surface into a boiler with ashes and lime, where it is boiled and skimmed; and, in the same manner, it is successively boiled and skimmed in three other boilers; and, after undergoing these boilings, it receives the
name

name of syrup. It is, after this, boiled anew, by a strong heat, and for a considerable time, with lime and alum. After being sufficiently boiled and concentrated, it is poured into a vessel called *the cooler*. When it is so cool that the finger may be dipped in it without injury, it is poured into large barrels standing over cisterns, and the bottoms of which are perforated with holes stopped with canes. In the barrels, the syrup takes the form of a solid mass, part of it running off into the cisterns. The sugar, when thus rendered concrete, is yellow and unctuous; it is now called *muscovado*. In the Sugar Islands, it is refined by boiling it, and then pouring it fluid into inverted cones of earthen ware, called pans. That part which cannot be rendered concrete, runs through a hole in each of the pans, into a pot placed below: it is called *coarse syrup*. The base of the sugar-loaf is taken away, and white sugar in powder put into its place, and pressed well down: The whole is then covered with pure, moist clay. The water of the clay filtrates through the sugar, carrying off with it a portion of the mother water of the sugar, which runs out by the holes in the pans, and is received into new pots. This is called *fine syrup*, as being purer than the former. A second layer of clay is laid on, when the first becomes dry, and the water filtrates through a second time: When the water contained in the second layer of clay is drained off, the loaves are removed into a stove to dry. At the end of eight or ten days these loaves are broken, and sent into Europe in the form of brown sugar, where it is refined into sugar of different qualities.

The refining of sugar is accomplished by boiling it in lime-water, and with bullock's blood, skimming it two or three times, filtrating the liquor, and running it in pans, to give it the shape of loaves. These loaves are then
coated

coated over with wet clay, the water of which is suffered to filtrate through them. The filtration is repeated with fresh clay, till the sugar become sufficiently white. The loaves are then removed into a stove, and at the end of eight days are wrapped up in paper for sale. The *syrup* which cannot be crystallized is called *molasses*.

Chemists have universally been of opinion, that these different operations separated from sugar a fat matter, and thereby rendered it susceptible of crystallization. Bergman thinks, that the use which the lime serves, is, to carry off the excess of acid, which hinders it from taking a solid form. The acid can be no other than the pyro-mucous acid which is formed by heat, as we have related in the foregoing chapter. As the liquor is exposed, during the operation, to a violent evaporation, it becomes a granulated, irregular mass, agreeably to what has been already observed of sulphate of zinc.

Sugar consists of a peculiar acid, combined with a little alkali, and altered by a good deal of oil, or greasy matter. It crystallizes in truncated, hexahedral prisms. In this state it is called *sugar-candy*. It affords, by distillation, water, pyro-mucous acid, and a few drops of empyreumatic oil. There is at the same time disengaged from it a considerable quantity of carbonic acid gas, and of hydrogenous gas, with coal dissolved in it. The residue is a spongy, light coal, containing a little carbonate of potash.

Sugar is inflammable: When laid on burning coals, it melts and swells; it exhales a very pungent acid vapour; it takes a brown yellow colour, in consequence of which it receives the name of *caramel*. It dissolves very readily in water. It communicates to it a considerable consistency, forming with it a sort of saccharine mucilage, which has received the name of *syrup*. This sy-

rup, when diluted in water, is susceptible of fermentation; it may even be converted into a vinous liquor, and alcohol distilled from it.

Bergman prepared from all the different saccharine matters, especially from sugar, oxalic acid by means of the nitric acid. To obtain that acid from these matters, put into a retort one part of sugar in powder, with six of nitric acid: Expose the mixture to a moderate heat; continue the evaporation for some time after red vapours cease to pass; leave the solution to cool; and it then precipitates white needled or prismatic crystals, which are concrete oxalic acid.

Sugar is very much used.—It is an article of food which, when taken in too large a quantity, heats the animal system. It is much used in pharmacy, being the basis of syrups, lozenges, and some other preparations. It contributes to dissolve and suspend in water, resins, oils, &c. It serves to preserve fruits reduced to jelly. It may be even considered as a medicine; for it is incisive, aperitive, and, in a slight degree, tonic and stimulant: And accordingly, there are some instances related, in which disorders arising from obstructions have been cured by the continued use of sugar.

There are some juices of plants which have a taste of sugar. Manna and nectar are of this kind. Manna is obtained from the leaves of fir, oak, juniper, &c. and maple-trees, &c. The ash, which is very plenteous in Calabria and Sicily, affords that which is commonly sold. It runs naturally from those trees, but is obtained in still greater abundance by making notches in the bark of the tree.—That which is received on chips of wood, or small sticks introduced into artificial apertures in the trees, takes the form of hollow stalactites, and is called *manna in tears*. *Manna in flakes* runs down the bark, and contains some impurities.

impurities. The inferior unctuous sort contains many extraneous matters, and is formed from the refuse pieces of the two former. It is always humid, and frequently altered. The taste of manna is mild and insipid : That which the larch tree that abounds in Dauphiny affords, and that of the alhagi, which grows in Persia, around Mount Tauris, are not in use ; the latter bears the name of *tereniabin*.—Manna is soluble in water ; it affords, by distillation, the same products as sugar. There is extracted from it, by means of lime and white of eggs, a matter resembling sugar, which, when treated with the nitric acid, affords concrete oxalic acid.

It is given as a purgative, in dozes of from one to two or three ounces ; or, when it is given as a discutient, a few drachms of it are diluted in a large proportion of water.

Another sort of proper juice, is that called *gum*, or *mucilage*. This substance is very plenteous in the vegetable kingdom. It is found in a great many roots : Young stems and leaves, immediately after their appearance, contain a good deal of it. This principle may be known by its viscous, adhesive property. In the season when the juice is most copious, it runs naturally down the bark of trees, and thickens into gum on the surface. The gum is soluble in water, to which it communicates a thick, viscid consistency. This solution, known by the name of *mucilage*, becomes, when evaporated, dry, transparent, and friable.

Gum burns without emitting any perceptible flame.—It melts, and swells upon coals. It affords, by distillation, a good deal of water and pyro-mucous acid, a little thick brown oil, and carbonic acid gas, mixed with hydrogenous gas : The residual coal is very bulky, and contains a little carbonate of potash.

We know of three sorts of gum that are used in medicine, and in the arts.

1. The gum of the apricot, the pear, and the plum-tree, &c. It is either white, yellow, or reddish; the best of this sort of gum may be applied to the same purposes with the other gums. A kind of gummy juice, of a beautiful orange-colour, flows from the elm; considerable quantities of it are sometimes found on the bark of the tree. I have found this gum to possess the properties of insipidity, insolubility, viscosity, with the other characteristics belonging to such juices.

2. Gum Arabic, which runs from the acacia in Egypt and Arabia. Gum Senegal is of the same kind; it is used in medicine as a mitigating and relaxing remedy. Crayons, and some other such compositions, are indebted to it for their consistency. It is used in various arts.

3. Gum Adraganth, which flows from the adraganthi of Crète; *Tragacantha Cretica*. It is administered in the same cases as Gum Arabic; the solution of it is somewhat thicker than the solution of Gum Arabic; it soon deposits viscid flakes, and requires more water to dissolve it.

Mucilages, of the same nature with gums, are obtained from various plants. The roots of mallows, marsh-mallows, the greater comfrey, the bark of elm; lintseed, the seeds of quinces, &c. afford, by maceration in water, viscous fluids, which, when evaporated to dryness, afford real gums. In medicine; decoctions of these plants are used instead of solutions of gums.

All of these matters, chemically considered, appear at first view to be nearly simple bodies; for chemical operations often offer to our observation substances of a gelatinous form, much like that of gums and mucilages; yet, from these products of vegetation, which appear to

form a sort of excrementitious humour, are extracted water, liquid pyro-mucous acid, carbonic acid, an oily principle, and fixed alkali united to a coaly residue. This residue likewise contains a fixed earth, the nature of which is still unknown.

When mucilages and gums are treated with nitric acid, and its action assisted by heat, they afford oxalic acid in crystals. They contain therefore the oily or radical principle, which, in combination with oxigene, constitutes this acid.

This analogy between mucilage and saccharine matter is farther observable, in that the smell of burnt gum is much the same with that of caramel—that the products which both afford by distillation are of a similar nature—and that the bulk and levity of the residual coal are the same for both. Some of those fruits which become saccharine, such as apricots, pears, &c. exude, when ripe, a real gum. That sort of dry mucilage which we are hereafter to examine under the name of *amylaceous fæcula*, is converted into saccharine matter by germination. These facts, and many others which might be joined with these, shew that there is a near relation between sugar and gum. Perhaps the insipid or gummy mucilage passes by a sort of fermentation into the state of a saccharine body. Were this an ascertained fact, this fermentation would come in order before that which Boerhaave has called *spiritous fermentation*; and must constantly precede it, both in the natural process of vegetation, and in the operations which art employs to produce the saccharine taste in barley, &c.

C H A P. IX.

Of Oils of a fixed Nature, that are extracted by Expression.

OILS are proper juices, of a fat, unctuous nature, either fluid or solid, not soluble in water, liable to burn with flame, volatile in various degrees: They are contained in the proper vessels, or in particular vesiculæ. These bodies are found existing in two states in vegetables: They are either combined with other principles, as in extracts, mucilage, &c. or they are free, and not united with any other principle. These latter oily juices are those of which we are here to speak.

Chemists have supposed the existence of a simple oily principle, as well as of a primitive salt. This oily principle, combined with different substances, and modified by those combinations, constituted, according to them, the various sorts of oils that were obtained by analysing vegetables. The characters which they ascribed to that simple primitive oil were, great fluidity, an high degree of volatility, privation of colour and smell:—It burnt with flame and smoke:—It did not combine with water:

Fixed Oils.

—It was thought to consist of water and an acid combined with an earth and *phlogiston*. It is certain that oils, when decomposed, always afford a small quantity of acid, and a good deal of hydrogenous gas: earth constitutes but a very small part of them, for they leave but very little fixed carbonaceous residue. This notion of the oily principle deserves to be viewed only in the light of an hypothesis.

Oils are never formed by any but organic beings; and such bodies in the mineral kingdom as are of an oily nature, always owe their origin to the action of vegetable or animal life. It is even highly probable, that vegetables are the only bodies in which oils are formed; and that they pass, without alteration, from vegetable into animal bodies.

The oily juices of vegetables are distinguished into fixed oils, and volatile oils.

Fixed oils, called also *fat oils*, *sweet oils*, *oils by expression*, are very unctuous: they have generally a mild and insipid taste, and no smell; the heat requisite to volatilize them is above that of boiling water; and they never take fire, till they are brought to that degree of heat which is requisite to volatilize them.—It is for this purpose the wick used in burning fixed oil in lamps is employed; it heats the oil to volatilization.

Most fixed oils are fluid, and require no considerable degree of cold to render them solid: Others, again, lose their fluidity by the slightest cold; and, lastly, there are others always solid: These last are called, but very improperly, *vegetable butters*.

Fixed oils never flow from the surfaces of vegetables: They are contained in the kernels, the pippins, and emulsive seeds. They are extracted by bruising the little
cells

cells in which they are contained ; that is, by pounding and squeezing.

Fixed oils, when exposed to the air, are altered, and become rancid ; their acid is liberated ; they lose the properties which they possessed, and acquire others, in consequence of which they are nearly assimilated to volatile oils. Water and alcohol carry off the acid, and thus destroy their rank taste, but never restore them to their primary state. M. Berthollet has discovered, that fat oils, when exposed to air, by being thinly spread over the surface of water, become thick, and assume pretty much the same appearance with wax. It is at present known as an undeniable fact, that this thickening of oils is owing to their absorbing oxigene from the atmosphere ; for all substances that contain this principle, and resign it to fixed oils,—as for instance, many of the acids, especially the oxygenated muriatic acid, and metallic oxides,—thicken fixed oils, and reduce them to a state in which they resemble wax.

Fixed oils afford by distillation a little water, containing a very acrid pungent acid, some light oil, a thick oil, and a large quantity of hydrogenous gas mixed with carbonic acid : They leave but very little residual coal. By distilling these products a second time, pure sebacic acid is obtained, of which we will have occasion to speak in the animal kingdom, and some oil, still lighter than what was before obtained.—This oil is improperly called *philosopher's oil*. The alchemists prepared it by distilling, several times successively, a brick impregnated with fixed oil. It is not perfectly known how far this decomposition may be carried : formerly, indeed, it was said that a fixed oil might be reduced to a free inflammable principle ; into water, acid, air, or earth.

Cold water effects no alteration on fat oils; it purifies them, by carrying off a part of their mucilage, which is likewise precipitated when they are submitted to combustion, and is the principle that renders them susceptible of fermentation, and liable to become rancid.—It is well known, that water cast upon these oils, when burning, instead of quenching, causes them to burn with new violence; the reason of which is, that the water, being decomposed, supplies oxigene to the oil, and at the same time gives out a good deal of hydrogenous gas. When the vapour which proceeds from fixed oil in combustion, is collected into a chimney terminating in a worm-pipe, a considerable quantity is obtained; which proves this immediate principle of vegetables to contain hydrogenous gas.

Fixed oils do not combine with siliceous earth: With clay they form a soft paste, which is employed in chemical manipulations under the name of *fat lute*.

They combine, by particular processes, with magnesia, and are thereby reduced to a saponaceous state.

Lime combines with them, but not in a very discernible manner, when the combination is immediate. Pure alkalis combine easily with fat oils, producing in this combination what is called *soap*.

In making soap, oil of olives or sweet almonds is triturated with a concentrated lixivium of soda, rendered caustic by lime; and this preparation is known by the name of *soap-lye*.—In the course of a few days, the mixture becomes thick, and forms medicinal soap. Common soap is prepared by boiling the lixivium with altered oil; it is then white. Green soap is made up of the refuse of olives and potash.

Soap dissolves in pure water: Heat decomposes it, disengaging from it phlegm, oil, and ammoniac formed in consequence

consequence of the decomposition of the alkali and the fixed oil; the coaly residue contains a good deal of fixed alkali. This artificial composition of ammoniac seems to prove, that there is azote in the fixed alkali, which reacts upon the hydrogen of the oil.

Since water decomposes soap, as has been remarked by M. Thouvenel; an insoluble calcareous soap is then formed and deposited in small lumps. Acids poured on soap, disengage the oil, somewhat altered.

Ammoniac does not easily combine with fixed oils; however, by long trituration, the mixture acquires some degree of consistency, and becomes opaque.

Fixed oils combine with weak acids to form peculiar soaps. Messrs Achard, Cornette, and Macquer, have examined these compounds. M. Achard formed them by pouring slowly a quantity of concentrated sulphuric acid upon the fixed oil. By continued trituration, this mixture is formed into a brown mass, soluble in water and alcohol. The oil obtained from it by the intervention of alkalis, is always more or less concrete, as well as that obtained by distillation. Macquer advises to prepare this soap by pouring acid on the oil; but he informs us, that an acid soap, formed in this manner, is scarce soluble in water. That which is prepared of concentrated sulphuric acid, triturated with common alkaline soap, is more soluble. The concentrated sulphuric acid blackens fixed oils, and assimilates them to bitumens. This phenomenon seems to be produced by the reaction of the hydrogen of the oil on the oxygen of the acid.

The fuming nitrous acid, blackens fixed oils instantaneously, and causes such as are of a dry nature to kindle and emit a flame. Those, again, which cannot be so readily dried, require, to kindle them, a mixture of this acid with the acid of sulphur, as has been shown by

Rouelle, the elder, in his Memoir on the Inflammation of Oils. *Academy, Year 1747.*

The muriatic and the carbonic acids act with but little strength on fixed oils.—The former of these, however, in a concentrated state, combines with them to a certain degree, according to M. Cornette. The oxygenated muriatic acid thickens them a good deal, and seems to make them pass, by absorbing their oxigene, into a state in which they bear a great resemblance to wax.

We know nothing of the action of the other acids on fixed oils. It appears that they do not combine with neutral salts. Several of these, and especially all calcareous salts, decompose alkaline soap. In this instance of decomposition, particularly when sulphate of lime, or of magnesia, which is often found in union with waters, decomposes this soap, the sulphuric acid combines with the fixed alkali of the soap, and thereby forms sulphate of soda; the lime or magnesia combines with the oil, and produces a sort of soap that is scarce soluble, and swims in whitish lumps on the surface of the water. This is the cause of the common appearance produced by hard waters, which curdle soap, but do not dissolve it.

The action of hydrogenous gas on fixed oils has not yet been examined.

These oils dissolve sulphur, when their action is assisted by a boiling heat. The solution is of a dark red colour, inclining to brown. It has a very foetid smell. It deposits, by degrees, sulphur in crystals. On distilling this combination, the sulphur is volatilized, being so completely dissolved in the hydrogenous gas that is disengaged from the oil, that not an atom of it is to be afterwards found. This fact deserves to be more particularly enquired into. There is also a little sulphureous gas obtained by this decomposition.

Fixed oils seem not to be susceptible of combination with pure metallic substances, excepting iron and copper, upon which they act in a sufficiently distinct manner. But they combine with metallic oxides, and form with them thick concrete combinations, of a soapy appearance, as is observable in the preparation of unguents and plasters. These preparations have not been yet chemically examined: only we know, that some metallic oxides are reduced in the making up of plasters; as, for instance, oxide of copper in the Divine Plaster, and litharge, or oxide of lead, in the Ointment *de la mere*. In the assaying of metals, fixed oils are employed to reduce the metallic oxides. M. Berthollet has given an ingenious and simple process for effecting instantaneously a real combination between fixed oil and any metallic oxide, that is, for preparing a metallic soap. It consists in pouring a metallic solution into a solution of common soap. The acid of the metallic solution combines with the fixed alkali of the soap; and the metallic oxide is then precipitated in union with the oil, to which it communicates a colour. In this manner, soap of a beautiful green colour may be prepared with sulphate of copper; and with sulphate of iron, a clear deep brown soap. These compounds might be very useful in painting.

Scheele has discovered, that when oil of sweet almonds, olives, rapeseed, or lintseed, is combined with oxide of lead, with the addition of a little water, there is a matter separated from the oil, which swims on the surface of the liquor, and to which he has given the name of *the mild principle*. On evaporating this supernatant water, the principle dissolved in it causes it to take the consistency of syrup; when exposed to a strong heat, it takes fire: one part is volatilized, in distillation, without burning: the coal which it leaves is light: it
does

does not crytallize; nor does it seem to be susceptible of fermentation. Nitric acid distilled on this matter, four times successively, changes it into oxalic acid. This mild principle of Scheele's appears to be a sort of mucilage.

Fixed oils dissolve bitumens, particularly amber; but they must be assisted by the action of heat, in order to effect this solution. They form a sort of greasy varnish, which does not readily become dry.

Fat oils may be distinguished into three genera:

To the *first* class belong such pure fixed oils as are fixed by cold, are slowly thickened, form soaps with acids, and are kindled only by a mixture of sulphur and nitre. Such are,

1. Oil of olives, obtained by bruising that fruit between two millstones, and pressing it in bags made of rushes. That which runs first is called *virgin oil*; that which is obtained from mark sprinkled with water is not so pure, and deposits a lee; that obtained from unripe olives, is the *oleum omphacinum* of the ancients. Oil of olives freezes at 10° degrees under Zero, in Reaumur's thermometer, or $10\frac{1}{2}$ above that point in Fahrenheit's, and will stand about twelve years without becoming rancid.

2. Oil of sweet almonds, extracted without the application of heat, becomes very soon rancid: it freezes at 6° under 0 in Reaumur's scale, or $17\frac{1}{2}$ of Fahrenheit's.

3. Oil of rapeseed, obtained from the seed of a kind of cabbage called *colsa*.

4. Oil of ben, extracted from the ben nut of Egypt and Arabia. It is very acrid, and destitute of smell. It freezes very easily.

The second genus comprehends oils subject to become dry, which are very easily rendered thick, are not fixed by the action of cold, are kindled by the nitric acid,

and

and form with sulphuric acid a sort of resin. Such are,

1. Lintseed oil, obtained by pressure from lintseed. It is used for oily varnishes, and in painting.
2. Oil of nuts, applied to the same uses.
3. Oil of carnations, or poppy seed; which, as has been fully proved by the Abbe Rozier, is not at all narcotic.
4. Oil of hempseed, which is very drying.

Under the third genus, we comprehend concrete fixed oils, or *vegetable butters*; among which we may distinguish the following:

1. Butter of cacao, extracted from the cacao nut.—There are four sorts of cacao; the large and the small caracca, the berbice, and that of the Islands. This butter is extracted from the nut by roasting, and subsequent boiling in water; it is purified by melting it by a very moderate heat.
2. The cocoa nut affords a similar butter.
3. Vegetable wax is of the same nature, only more solid. It is the production of China. It is there made into yellow, white, or green candles, the colour varying with the manner in which the wax is extracted. The catkins of birch and poplar afford a small quantity of a similar wax.—That of Louisiana is more plenteous. M. Berthollet easily whitens it with oxygenated muriatic acid.

Fixed oils are much used in the arts, and in medicine, and are applied to various purposes. In the latter they are used as softening, relaxing, calming, and laxative medicines. Some of them are even purgative; as, for instance, the oil of Ricinus, which has been found to destroy the *tænia*, or solitary worm, and cause it to be evacuated.

vacuated. They enter into a great many compound medicines, such as balsams, unguents, and plasters.— Lastly, they are sometimes used as seasoning, or food, on account of their agreeable taste, and the mucilage which they contain.

CHAP,

C H A P. X.

Of Volatile Oils.

VOLATILE or *essential* oils are distinguished from fixed oils by the following peculiar properties.— Their smell is strong and aromatic : They are so volatile, that they may be distilled by the heat of boiling water : Their taste is very acrid : They are much more combustible than the other class of oils.

These oils are found to exist in almost all odorous plants. They are contained either in the whole plant, as in the angelica of Bohemia, or only in the root of the plant, as in starwort, the iris, white dittany, and kidney ; or in the stem, as in sandal, saffrafras, and pine-wood ; or in the bark, as in cinnamon. Sometimes it is confined to the leaves, as in balm, peppermint, worm-wood, &c. In other plants, it is found in the calices of the flowers : Of this kind are the rose and lavender ; the petals of camomile and the orange-flower are filled with it. It is, at other times, fixed in the fruits, as in cubebs, pepper, and juniper-berries. Lastly, A number
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of vegetables contain it in the seed ; such as nutmeg, anise, fennel, and the many umbelliferous plants.

These oils differ from one another, 1. In their quantity, which varies according to the state or age of the plant : 2. In consistency ; some are very fluid, such as those of lavender, rue, &c. ; some congeal by cold, such as oil of anise, and fennel ; others are always concrete, of which kind are the oils of roses, parsley, kidney-wort, and starwort : 3. In colour ; some are destitute of colour ; others, such as oil of lavender, are of a pale yellow ; or a dark yellow, as oil of cinnamon ; or blue, as oil of camomile ; or sea-green, as oil of St John's-wort ; or green, as oil of parsley : 4. In gravity ; some swim on the surface of water, most of those, indeed, that are produced in temperate countries ; others sink to the bottom of that fluid, as oil of saffras, of carraway seeds, and most oils of this kind from hot countries : this property, however, is not constant with respect to climate, for the essential oils of pepper, nutmegs, and mace, &c. are lighter than water : 5. In taste and smell : the taste of an essential oil is often very different from that of the plant from which it was extracted ; pepper, for instance, affords a mild oil, and oil of wormwood is not bitter.

Volatile oils are extracted, 1. By pressure, from cedra, bergamot, lemons, oranges, &c. ; this is called *essence* : 2. By distillation ; the plant is put into the cucurbite of a copper alembic, with water ; the water is boiled, and the oil passes together with the fluid, and gathers above it in a receiver prepared for their reception.

Volatile oils are adulterated either by fixed oils, which is detected by their staining paper ; or by oil of turpentine, which may be discovered by the strong smell peculiar to turpentine, which always remains after the essential oil

is evaporated; or by alcohol and water, which, by rendering the mixture turbid, detects the alteration produced by this substance.

Volatile oils lose their smell by a moderate heat. As they are so very volatile, fire does not decompose them. When heated in close vessels, they give out a large proportion of hydrogenous gas. When heated in contact with air, they take fire speedily, and exhale a very thick smoke, which is condensed into a very fine, light, carbonaceous matter: They leave but very little coaly residue after inflammation, being so volatile, that the carbonaceous matter is formed in the part that ascends.

When exposed to the air, they become thick, and, in process of time, are converted into resins. They deposit needled crystals, like those of sublimated camphire. Geoffroy the younger observed these crystals in the volatile oils of mother wort, marjoram, and turpentine. Their smell, he informs us, is much the same with that of camphire. *Acad. 1721, page 163.*

They combine with some difficulty with lime and alkalis; and form with these substances imperfect soaps, to which we give the name of *saponulæ*: Acids alter them; the concentrated sulphuric acid changes them into bitumens; when weak, it forms with them a sort of soap. The nitrous acid inflames them; the muriatic acid reduces them to a saponaceous state; the oxygenated muriatic acid thickens them.

They act not upon neutral salts.

They combine very easily with sulphur, with which they form compounds that are called *balsams of sulphur*, in which the sulphur is so divided that it cannot be extracted, but is separated by heat in the form of sulphurated hydrogenous gas.

Mucilages

Mucilages and sugar render them soluble in water. They are used in medicine as cordials, stimulants, antispasmodics, &c. Externally applied, they are powerful antiseptics, and stop the progress of caries in the bones.

C H A P.

C H A P. XI.

Of the Camphorate Principle.

CAMPHOR is a white matter, concrete, crystalline, and of a strong taste and smell; in some of its properties nearly allied to volatile oils, but widely distinguished from them by others.

Chemists have, from a great variety of observations, concluded camphor to be an immediate principle of vegetables, which, they think, exists in all highly odorous plants that contain volatile oil. It has, in fact, been obtained from the roots of the cinnamon tree, zedoary, thyme, rosemary, sage, and many other labiated plants, either by distillation or decoction, as has been observed by Cartheuser and Neumann. But the quantity of the camphor thus obtained is very small, and it always retains a smell of the plant from which it was extracted. This singular substance appears to be combined with the volatile oils of these vegetables, as those oils have been observed by Geoffroy to deposit needles of camphor. I have seen, in the possession of M. Joffe, apothecary at Paris, true camphor extracted from the root of elecampane.

pane. Lorry thought camphor a very general principle in vegetables, and placed its aromatic flavour at the head of a class of very powerful odours, the effects of which on the animal œconomy well merit the attention of physicians.

The camphor used in medicine is extracted from a sort of bay-tree that grows in China, Japan, and in the isles of Borneo, Sumatra, Ceylon, &c. The tree which produces it, often contains it in such abundance, that very large and pure tears of camphor may be obtained from it solely by splitting the wood. It is commonly, however, extracted by distillation. The roots, or other parts of the tree, are put into an iron alembic with water, covered over with a capital containing ropes of rice straw, and thus exposed to heat. The camphor is sublimated in small greyish grains; and these again unite into larger pieces. This crude camphor is impure. The Dutch purify it by sublimating it in a sort of balloon, and adding an ounce of lime to the pound of crude camphor.

Camphor is much more volatile than the essential oils; for the gentlest heat is sufficient to sublimate it. It crystallizes in hexagonal plates, with a stem in the middle. When a strong heat is applied, it melts before volatilizing. It does not appear to be decomposable by this means: however, when distilled a number of times successively, it affords a reddish phlegm, evidently of an acid nature; and this shews, that if the process were carried farther, its nature might at length be altered. The temperature of summer is sufficient to volatilize camphor. When exposed to the air, it is entirely dissipated and lost; when inclosed in close vessels, it is sublimated in hexagonal pyramids, or in polygon crystals, which were in the year 1756 observed and described by Romieu. It exhales a strong smell, too strong indeed
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for the nerves of some people to bear. It takes fire very easily, burns with a good deal of smoke, and leaves no coaly residue.

It is not soluble in water ; it will, however, communicate its smell to water : it burns on its surface. Romieu has observed, that small pieces of camphor, one third, or one fourth of a line in diameter, when put into a glass of pure water, move round, till they are at length dissolved in about the space of half an hour. He suspects this motion to be an effect of electricity ; and observes, that it ceases when the water is touched with any body that can act the part of a conductor, such as iron wire ; and that, on the contrary, it still continues, though the water be touched with an insulating body, such as glass, resin, sulphur, &c.

Earths, salino-terreous substances, and alkalis are incapable of acting on camphor. We must observe, however, that the power of caustic alkalis on this substance has not yet been brought to trial.

Acids, when concentrated, dissolve camphor. The sulphuric acid dissolves it, with the help of heat : the solution is red. The nitric acid dissolves it slowly : this solution is yellow. As it swims over the acid in the same way as oils, it has been improperly called *oil of camphor*. M. Kosegarten has discovered, as has been taken notice of in the VIIth Chapter, that the nitric acid, when distilled eight times successively upon camphor, changes into a crystallizable acid, which he thinks to be of a peculiar nature.

The muriatic acid gas dissolves camphor ; so likewise do the sulphureous acid gas, and the fluoric acid gas. When water is poured into these solutions, they become turbid ; the camphor is separated in flakes, which swim on the surface of the liquor, and appear to have suffered

ferred no alteration. Alkalis, the salino-terreous substances, and metallic matters likewise precipitate these solutions.

Neutral salts act not upon camphor. We know not in what manner sulphur and bitumens act upon this substance; but they are probably capable of combining with it.

The fixed and the volatile oils dissolve camphor with the help of heat. These solutions, when cooled, deposit, by degrees, crystals in a vegetative form, similar to those that are formed in solutions of ammoniacal muriate; that is, consisting of a stalk, with very fine filaments extending from it horizontally. These filaments, which in their disposition resemble the beard of a feather, exhibit a very beautiful and regular appearance, when viewed through a microscope. We owe this fine fact to Romieu, (*Academy 1756, page 448*). The solution of camphor in alcohol, which is much better known, and much more in use than the preceding solution, was observed by the same chemist to afford, by a particular process, a species of crystallization somewhat different.

Camphor is one of the most potent remedies which medicine employs. It dispels inflammatory tumours in a very short time. It is used as an antispasmodic and antiseptic medicine, in infectious distempers, the malignant fever, and all diseases in general that are attended with affections of the nerves, and putridity. In France, it is given only in doses of a few grains: In England and Germany, they go so far as to give it in doses of several drachms a day. It is also worthy of being mentioned, that camphor alleviates burnings, and pains in the urinary passages, so speedily, often, as might tempt the patient to think his relief the effect of enchantment. It is given, either triturated with the yolks of eggs, sugar,
and

and gums, or in the state of oil of camphor, and always in certain drinks prepared for the purpose. Surgeons apply camphorated aquavitæ, of the composition of which we shall hereafter give an account, to external gangrenes; and the liquor often puts a stop to their progress.

C 3

CHAP.

C H A P. XII.

Of the Spiritus Rectior, or the Aromatic Principle of Plants.

BOERHAAVE gives the name of *spiritus rectior* to that principle to which plants owe their smell: very little, however, is as yet known concerning the properties of this singular substance, which, from its influence on the animal œconomy, so strongly attracts our notice. We use the name *aroma*, instead of *spiritus rectior*, deriving it from the well known term *aromatic*.

The aromatic principle of plants appears to be very volatile, very fugitive, and very subtle; it is continually disengaged from plants, forming around them an odorous atmosphere, of a wider, or a narrower extent. Plants differ all from one another in the quantity, the strength, and the nature of their aromatic principle. Some are plenteously provided with this principle, and lose it only in part when dried, so that it would appear to be in some manner fixed in them: of this kind are in general all odorous woods, and all the dry and ligneous, odorate parts of vegetables. In others this principle is
so

so fugitive and volatile, that though they be strongly odorous, they can scarce be rendered permanently so. Lastly, there are some plants which possess the odorous principle in so low a degree, that they are said to be inodorous, and their *aroma* has been distinguished as *herbaceous*.

The slightest degree of heat is sufficient to disengage the aroma of plants. To obtain it, the plant must be distilled in a *balneum-mariæ*, and its vapours received into a cold capital, which may condense, and conduct them in a fluid state into the receiver. The product is pure odoriferous water, and is known by the name of essential or distilled water.⁶ This liquor is to be considered as a solution of the odorous principle in water. That principle is more volatile than the water in which it is dissolved. This aromatic water, when heated, loses by degrees all its smell, and becomes insipid. It suffers a singular alteration when exposed to air; it then deposits very light flakes, of a mucilaginous appearance, and acquires a smell of mouldiness.

The principle of smell combines with oily juices, and even appears to constitute one of the elementary principles of volatile oils; for, 1. These oils are always impregnated with it: 2. Those plants in which the principle of smell is considerably fixed, afford invariably more volatile oil than those of which the smell is very fugitive, many of which, as, for instance, those of the lily kind, often afford no volatile oil at all. The aromatic water of this latter class of plants, such as the tuberose and the odoriferous lily, needs to be combined with fixed oils, in order to prevent its escape. The jasmine, too, is of the same character. The flowers of these plants are put into a tin cucurbite with cotton moistened with oil of ben; the flowers and the cotton are disposed

in alternate layers; the cucurbite is then shut, and exposed to a gentle heat: The aroma, disengaged from the flowers, then combines with the oil, so as to become permanently fixed. 3. Plants that have no smell, never afford a single particle of volatile oil. 4. Vegetables, from which aromatic water has been extracted by distillation on the *balneum-mariæ*, no longer afford any volatile oil; at least, unless they still retain some little smell; and even in that case they afford but a very small quantity of oil. 5. Volatile oil that has lost its smell, readily regains it with all its properties, when distilled on a fresh plant of the same species with those from which it was at first extracted.

The action of saline matters on aromatic water has not yet been examined. M. Berthollet has discovered, that the oxygenated muriatic acid often destroys the smell of vegetables, and of consequence alters their aroma.

The nature of this principle is not the same in all plants; it varies according to the genera of the plants to which it belongs. Macquer follows Boerhaave in thinking, that it is generally a compound of an inflammable substance with a saline matter; but observes, that it sometimes partakes more of a saline nature, and at other times approaches nearer in nature to oily matters. The aroma of cruciform plants, he thinks to be saline; and ascribes to it the characteristics of being pungent and penetrating, yet not affecting the nerves: That, again, which is insipid, or strong but not pungent, and affects the nerves, so as either to occasion, or to revive from, fits owing to the particular state of the nervous system,—effects which aromatic and narcotic plants usually produce;—that, according to this celebrated chemist, has more of an oily than of a saline nature. Several facts concur to support this opinion. The *fraxinella* diffuses an o-
dour

dour which forms an inflammable atmosphere around it; and whenever a burning body comes within this atmosphere, it takes fire; and the vapour then burns from the lower to the upper part of the stem that supports the flowers.

The aroma of the *fraxinella* seems therefore to be of an oily nature. Venel, a chemist at Montpellier, who studied under Rouelle, extracted an acid spiritus rector from favoy (marum) by a gentle heat; and Roux, professor of chemistry in the schools of medicine, having examined the product, found that it did not redden vegetable colours, but saturated alkalis. With respect to the aroma of cruciform plants, chemists are not yet agreed concerning its nature. Some think it acid; others call it alkaline. It appears from the experiments of Messrs Deyeux and Baumé, that sulphur is found in combination with the odorate principle of antiscorbutic plants; and that it is that combustible body, reduced to the state of elastic fluidity by combination with hydrogen, which constitutes the aroma of cruciform plants.

There are yet two important observations to be made concerning the aroma of plants. In the first place, it is perhaps, as Macquer suspected, a gas of a peculiar nature: its invisibility, its volatility, the manner in which it diffuses itself through the atmosphere, its power of expansion, together with some experiments by Dr Ingenhousz, on the noxious gas exhaled from flowers, render this opinion highly probable.—What we want to determine this point, is a series of experiments, which would indeed require to be performed with the utmost care and accuracy, but would certainly accomplish some noble and useful discoveries. Boyle has already opened a wide field of enquiry concerning smells, their alterability and reciprocal combination: and that train of re-
-search

search has been very successfully prosecuted by Lorry. This philosopher has observed the alterations produced on them by mixture with one another, by fermentation, and by the action of fire, air, and different menstrua.—We cannot, without making an improper digression, enter here into a particular detail of his experiments; but we may mention his general division of smells. Lorry divides these bodies into five classes, camphorate, æthereal, poisonous or narcotic, acid, and alkaline: All smells may, in his opinion, be referred to some one of these classes. In explaining the grounds on which he establishes this division, with respect to the manner in which smells affect the sense of smelling, and the nerves in general, Lorry informs us, that he proposes not to examine their chemical nature: But it is probable, as he himself thinks, that those of each class are nearly of the same nature in respect to chemical properties, as well as to the manner in which they affect the animal œconomy.

Our second observation, and with it we mean to conclude the chemical history of the principle of smell, is, that, though the plants which have been called inodorous, be thought to contain none of this principle; yet it is at present a well-known fact, that, by the gentlest heat of a *balneum-mariæ*, there may be extracted from them a water, of which the smell, though very faint, will however be sufficient to indicate from what plant it was extracted.—I can assert this upon my own experience. I have often found those plants that are commonly reckoned the most inodorous, such as succory, plantain, borage, &c. to afford, by the *balneum-mariæ*, a water that diffuses a smell, by which the nature of the plant from which it was extracted may be sufficiently known. It is true, that these insipid aromatic waters are very soon decomposed, and lose, in a short time, that
faint

faint smell by which they are distinguished: They are altered, and ferment, and pass either into an acid or an alkaline state.

The perfumer's art, which preserves the odorous parts of vegetables, and fixes them in different substances, is founded on the chemical methods by which those parts are extracted from the vegetable. Most of the processes of that art are entirely chemical.

Medicine, too, makes much use of distilled or aromatic waters. They possess different virtues, according to the peculiar nature of each. Those employed for the purposes of medicine are usually distilled by naked fire, with water, in the same way as volatile oils. This manipulation answers very well for the aroma of such waters as are truly aromatic, but not so well with those plants that are commonly called inodorous. These ought to be distilled in a *balneum-mariæ*; and as this precaution is seldom taken, they have usually an empyreumatic smell acquired from the fire, even when not impregnated with the odorous principle of the plant.—If these waters owe all their virtue to the aroma which they contain, weak as that is, it is certain that the mode of preparing them destroys all the properties which that principle can possibly confer upon them.

To these observations we shall only add, that the distilled waters of plants prepared by the apothecary, are not that pure aroma which Boerhaave called *Spiritus rectior*, but that principle, diluted in a large proportion of water, distilled with the plants.

C H A P. XIII.

Of Resinous Inflammable Juices in general, and of Balsams in particular.

THE name, *Resins*, is given to certain dry, inflammable matters, which cannot be mixed with water, but are soluble in oils and alcohol, and run fluid from the trees in which they are produced. These matters are nothing but oils concentered by the desiccative action of the air. Various opinions are entertained concerning the difference between Balsams and Resins. Some give the name of Balsams to inflammable fluid substances; but there are also dry balsams: Others confine the name to the most odorous inflammable substances. Bucquet has thrown much new light on this matter, by confining the name of *balsams* to such of those combustible matters as are sweet-smelling, and can communicate their smell to water; and, especially, which contain odorate and concrete acid salts, that may be obtained from them by sublimation or decoction in water.

The principal species of balsams, are the three following:

I. Benzoin.

1. Benzoin. Of this there are two sorts: the amygdaline benzoin, in white tears resembling almonds, united by a brown juice; and common benzoin, of a brown colour, not in tears: it exhales a very pleasing smell, when melted, or pricked with a hot needle. The tree that affords it is unknown. This balsam comes to us from the kingdom of Siam, and the island of Sumatra. On account of its solidity, it affords but little essential oil. Boiling water extracts from it an acid salt in needles, which is strong smelling, and crystallizes by cooling. The salt is also obtained by sublimation. When obtained by this last process, it is called *flowers of benzoin*. This operation is performed in two varnished earthen pots, placed one above the other, and made close with paper at the place of their junction. The fire must be moderate, otherwise the salt becomes brown. The pasteboard cone which was formerly used for this purpose suffered a great deal of the concrete acid to escape. We have given an account of the properties of this acid in a preceding chapter. Benzoin affords, in a retort, a very acid phlegm, a concrete brown salt of the same nature, and brown thick oil: the residual coal contains fixed alkali.

Benzoin is soluble in alcohol; and the tincture of this balsamic substance, precipitated by water, forms *lac virginale*. Salt of benzoin is used as a good incisive in puituous disorders of the lungs and reins. The oil is discutient, and is externally applied to limbs affected with palsy, &c.

2. Balsam of Tolu, Peru, and Carthagena. This balsam is brought to Europe, either in cocoa nut-shells, or in yellowish tears, or in a fluid state: it flows from the toluifera, which Linnæus ranks in the decandria monogynia class. It may be extracted from the shells, by
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steeping them in boiling water, which renders it fluid. It comes from a country in South America, situated between Carthagena and Nombre de Dios, called by the inhabitants of the islands Tolu, and by the Spaniards Honduras. It affords, when analysed, the same products as benzoin, and especially a concrete acid salt. It is made into syrup; and administered in diseases of the lungs.

The acid of the balsam of Tolu has not been yet examined: it is thought not to differ essentially from the benzoic acid.

3. Storax calamita is in tears, either red and clean, or brown and greasy. It smells very strong; it runs from the oriental liquidambar, a plant that is but little known. Duhamel observed a juice running from the *aliboufier*, that had nearly the same smell. Neumann analysed the storax calamita, and obtained from it an essential oil, a concrete acid salt, and a thick oil. It serves for nearly the same purposes as benzoin: it is chiefly used for perfume. We formerly had it sent to us in reeds; but we now get it in loaves, or irregular masses, of a reddish brown colour, mixed with a few tears of a lighter colour, and a more pleasant smell.

C H A P. XIV.

Of Resins.

RESINS differ from balsams, as having a less pleasing smell; and, still more eminently, as containing no concrete acid salt. The following are the principal species of resins.

1. Balsam of Mecca, Judæa, Egypt, Grand Cairo. It is liquid, white, bitter, and of an high lemon colour. It runs from a tree that is called *amyris opobalsamum*, ranked by Linnæus in the octandria monogynia, and discovered in Arabia the Happy by M. Forskahl. This liquid resin sometimes affords essential oil by distillation. With sugar, and yolks of eggs, &c. it is used as a vulnerary.

2. Brown or yellow balsam of Copahu, which runs from the tree, called copaiba, and by Linnæus *copaifera*, and ranked by that botanist in the decandria monogynia. The common kind, both of this and of the balsam of Tolu, is, according to Cartheuser, a mixture of genuine balsam of Copahu with turpentine. It is used, as well as the preceding resin, as a remedy for ulcers of the lungs and bladder.

3. Chio

3. Chio turpentine runs from the turpentine tree that bears the pistachio nuts. It is of a white or yellow colour, inclining to blue. It affords on a *balneum-mariæ* a very fluid volatile oil: that which it affords by naked fire, is not so fluid. The turpentine is, after this operation, of a still yellower colour. When distilled with water, it is white and silky, and is called boiled turpentine. This turpentine is not common, and is not applied to any use.

4. Venetian turpentine, or Milesian resin, is that most commonly used in medicine. It is used either in its natural state, or combined with fixed alkali. This composition has been called Starkey soap. We consider it as a *saponula*. To prepare it, the Paris Dispensary directs to pour four ounces of volatile oil of turpentine on half a pound of nitre fixed by tartar and still hot; to stir the mixture with an ivory spatula, and cover the vessel with a piece of paper; adding oil, by degrees, till the whole form one white mass. This process takes up several months; and chemists have therefore sought to find out some more expeditious method of making up the medicine. Rouelle prepared, in the space of three hours, a pretty considerable quantity of this soap, by triturating alkali with the oil dropped upon it, and adding a little water towards the end of the operation. M. Baumé directs to levigate upon porphyry one part of alkali of tartar, previously exposed to heat till it was brought near the point of fusion; and to add to it, by degrees, two or three times its weight of volatile oil. When the mixture is brought to the consistency of a soft opiate, put it into a glass cucurbite covered with paper, and set it aside in a damp place. In fifteen days time, the deliquescent alkali forms a distinct portion of liquor at the bottom of the vessel; the soap occupies the middle;

middle; and a portion of the oil, having assumed a red colour, swims on the surface. M. Baumé thinks that the alkali unites only with that portion of the oil which is in a resinous state. M. le Gendre pursues this idea farther, and proposes to saturate a cold solution of the fixed alkali with concentrated oil of turpentine, or even with turpentine itself. This soap is in some degree solid, and becomes gradually more so: crystals are formed in it, which have been considered as a combination of the acid of the oil with vegetable fixed alkali. But, according to the academicians of Dijon, they are nothing but potash saturated with carbonic acid, and crystallized in that state. As it is no easy matter to make up this soap, and it is besides very liable to alteration; Macquer thinks, that when a substance is wanted, possessing the properties of volatile oils, and those of soaps, in union, it were better on any occasion to incorporate a few drops of volatile oil with medicinal white soap, to serve the present purpose. Ammoniac, triturated with turpentine, forms a solid saponaceous compound, which dissolves very readily with water, and renders it milky and frothy.

5. The resin of the fir tree is called turpentine of Strasburgh. It is obtained by piercing the vesiculæ of the bark of the fir tree, of which there are extensive forests on the hills of Switzerland.

6. Pitch is the juice of a sort of fir tree called *abies picea*. It is obtained, by incision, from the bark of the tree. It is melted by a moderate fire; pressed in bags of cloth; and received into barrels: This is Burgundy pitch, or white pitch; by mixture with lamp-black, it is converted into black pitch. When it is kept long in fusion with vinegar, it becomes dry and brown, and so forms what is called *Colophony*. The more impure parts are

burnt in a furnace, with a chimney passing into a small cabinet, terminating in a cone of cloth: the smoke is condensed in this cone, into a fine soot that is called lamp-black.

7. The Galipot is the resin of the pine which bears the soft apples. This tree is notched towards the bottom, and the resin runs out into troughs. When the resin ceases to run out by the lower holes, they are continued up the tree. When it runs fluid, it is called Galipot; that which hardens upon the tree into yellowish masses, is called *Barras*. These juices are liquefied in boilers; and, after being concentrated by heat, are filtrated through straw mats, and run into moulds in sand, or formed into loaves that are called *arcanson*, or *bray-sec*. When water is poured in, the matter becomes white, and forms *resin*, or *pitch-resin*. The inhabitants of Provence distil galipot: they extract from it an oil which they call *huile de raze*. *Tar*, which is the empyreumatic oil of this substance, is prepared from the trunk and roots of the pine. A quantity of the wood is heaped together, covered with turf, and set on fire. The turf hinders the oil that is disengaged by the heat from being volatilized; and it passes into a shallow tub through a channel, out of which it is removed, without farther preparation, to be sold as *tar*.

8. Tacamahaca, gum elemi, gum animæ are very little used. The tree that affords the first is unknown. The *elemi* is produced by a species of *amyris*. The oriental gum animæ, or copal, the origin of which is unknown, and the occidental gum animæ, or courbaril, which flows from the *hymenæa*, a tree that grows in South America, are used for varnishes.

9. Mastic is in white, farinaceous tears, of a faint smell: It flows from the turpentine tree, and the mastic tree;

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It is used as an astringent, and an aromatic; it enters into the composition of drying varnishes.

10. Sandarac is in white tears, more transparent than those of mastic. It is obtained from the juniper tree, in which it occupies a place between the bark and the wood. It is likewise called varnish, as it enters into those preparations. It is used, in powder, to prevent ink from sinking on paper, from which the external coating of size has been scraped off.

11. The resin of Guayacum, which is greenish, is used as a remedy for the gout. It is obtained, by incision, from the guayacum tree.

12. Labdanum, the resin of a species of cistus in Candia, is of a blackish colour. The peasants gather it by striking the trees with staves, having a number of leather thongs fixed to the one end. They make it up into cylindrical pieces, which they call *ladanum in tortis*. It is adulterated by a copious addition of blackish sand: It is used as an astringent.

13. Dragon's blood is a red juice, extracted from the *dracæna draco*, and some other trees of a similar nature. It comes to us in small flat cakes or round balls, or in little spherical pieces, wrapped up in leaves, and knotted like a chaplet. It is used in medicine as an astringent,

C H A P. XV.

Of Gum Resins.

GUM RESINS are mixed juices, consisting of resin and extractive matter, which has been taken for a gummy substance. They run by incision, but never naturally, from trees or plants, in the form of white, yellow, or red emulsive fluids, which are sooner or later consolidated. Water, alcohol, wine, vinegar—none of all these liquors dissolves more than a part of gum resins. They differ in the proportions of the resin and the extract, and afford, by analysis, many various results. The following are the most important species :

1. Olibanum consists of yellow, transparent tears, of a very strong and disagreeable smell. It is not known from what tree it flows. It affords, by distillation, a small portion of volatile oil, and an acid spirit, leaving a pretty large residual coal, produced from the extractive matter which it contains. It is used in fumigations as a resolvent medicine.

2. Galbanum is a fat juice, of a brown yellow colour, and a nauseous smell. It runs, in Arabia, Syria, and at the Cape of Good Hope, from incisions in a ferulaceous plant

plant called *Bubon Galbanum* by Linnæus. When distilled by naked fire, it affords a blue essential oil, which afterwards becomes red, an acid spirit, and a ponderous empyreumatic oil. It is an excellent discutient, and a powerful antispasmodic.

3. Scammony is of a blackish grey colour, a strong nauseous smell, and a bitter and very acrid taste. The scammony of Aleppo is by far the purest. That of Smyrna is ponderous, black, and mixed with extraneous bodies. It is extracted from the *convolvulus scammonia* of Linnæus. The root of the plant, cut and squeezed, affords a white juice, which, when dried, becomes black. The various specimens of scammony contain various proportions of extract and resin; on which account, its effects as a medicine are far from uniform. It is given as a purgative, in dozes of from four to twelve grains. Mixed with a sweet extract, such as that of liquorice, it forms the common *diagredium*. It is likewise used for this purpose with the juice of quinces. It is usually given in a powder with sugar and sweet almonds.

4. Gum guttæ is yellow, reddish, destitute of smell, and of a strong, acrid, and corrosive taste. It comes from Siam, China, and the island of Ceylon. It is extracted from a large tree, very little known to us, and distinguished in the countries where it grows by the name of *Coddam Pulli*. It contains a good deal of resin, which renders it strongly purgative, when administered in dozes of four or six grains. It should be very cautiously administered internally.

5. Euphorbium is in yellow tears, which are of a caustic, or worm-eaten appearance, and have no smell. It runs from incisions in the plant *euphorbium*, which grows in Ethiopia, Libya, and Mauritania. It contains a very acrid resin. It is so strongly purgative, as to be ranked a-

mong poisons. The only medical use for which it serves, is, in external applications to caries.

6. *Affa-fœtida* is sometimes in yellowish tears, but ofteneſt in loaves, conſiſting of different pieces agglutinated together. It has a very fœtid ſmell of garlic, and taſtes bitter and nauſeouſly diſagreeable. It is extracted from the root of a ſort of *ferula* that grows in the province of Chorazan in Perſia, and has been called by Linnæus *Affa fœtida*. The root of that plant is fleſhy, and ſucculent. It affords, by expreſſion, a white juice, of an abominable ſmell, uſed by the Indians as a ſeaſoning, and called by them food for the Gods. It is uſed internally as a powerful antipſmodic, and externally as a diſcuſſive.

7. Aloes is a juice of a dark red, and ſometimes even a brown colour, with conſiderable bitterneſs of taſte. There are three kinds of it: ſuccotrine aloes, hypatic aloes, and caballine aloes. The firſt is the pureſt; and it is only in purity the three ſorts differ. A. de Juſſieu ſaw theſe ſeveral kinds of aloes prepared at Morviedro, in Spain, from the leaves of the common aloes. Deep incifions were made in the leaf; the juice ran out by theſe: It was then decanted from above the ſæcula, and thickened by expoſure to the ſun. The aloes prepared in this manner is put up in leather bags, and ſold under the name of ſuccotrine aloes. The juice ſqueezed from the leaves, purified by reſt, and then dried, forms hepatic aloes. Laſtly, the leaves are again preſſed; and the juice now obtained from them, mixed with the lees remaining from the two former operations, forms caballine aloes. The firſt of theſe different ſorts of aloes, contains much leſs reſinous matter than either of the two latter, and is therefore much leſs purgative. It is uſed in medicine as a draſtic purge, and is known to poſſeſs the property of
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bringing on the menstrual flux with women, and the hemorrhoidal flux with men. It is recommended as an excellent hydragogue.

8. Myrrh is in the form of reddish tears, of a brilliant appearance, of a pretty strong but agreeable smell, of a bitter taste, and exhibiting in their fracture, when broken, white lines of the form of a nail. Some of these tears are entirely gummy and insipid. Myrrh comes from Egypt, but chiefly from the ancient country of the Troglodytes, in Arabia. The plant that affords it is unknown to us. It contains much more extract than resin. It is used in medicine as a very good stomachic, an antispasmodic, and a cordial. Cartheuser advises literary people, who have delicate stomachs, to chew and swallow it with their spittle. It is used in surgery for cleansing putrid ulcers, and stopping the progress of caries, either in powder, or diluted in spirit of wine.

9. Gum ammoniac sometimes appears in tears that are white internally, but externally yellow, and often in masses much like those of benzoin. They are easily distinguished, however, by their white colour and foetid smell. This gum resin which we get from Africa, is thought, on account of the seed mixed with it, to be extracted from an umbelliferous plant. This substance being soluble in water and spirit of wine, as well as inflammable, is nearly of the same character with those which Rouelle has named resinous extractive matters.

In medicine, gum ammoniac is used as a very good discutient, in cases of obstinate obstruction. It is given in doses of a few grains, either in pills or emulsions: it enters also into the composition of many discutient and resolvent plasters.

10. Elastic resin, or Caout-chouc, is a substance, concerning the nature of which it is hard to say any thing.

Its containing combustible matter, a part of which is extracted in America for lights, is a characteristic in which it agrees with resinous substances: but its elasticity, softness, and insolubility in the menstrua which usually dissolve resins distinguish it as a substance of a different nature.

The tree which affords it grows in various parts in America. Incisions are made across its bark, which must always penetrate to the wood: a white juice, more or less fluid, flows from it, and is received into vessels, in order that it may be applied to the different purposes for which it is suitable: it is laid in layers on clay moulds; and dried by exposure to the sun, or to fire. Various designs are then sketched upon them with the point of an iron instrument: they are then exposed to smoke; and when sufficiently dried, the moulds are broken. In this way are formed the bottles, and other utensils of gum elastic, that come into Europe.

The vessels made of this matter are capable of holding water, and such other fluids as have no power of acting upon it. If it be cut into pieces, and the edges applied to each other soon after they are cut, the pieces unite again. I examined juice of caout-chouc, which was sent me from Madagascar. It was white as milk, and its smell insufferably foetid. It contained a concrete, white, spongy matter, in the middle of the bottle, of a similar form, and likewise elastic. When the liquor was heated, a white pellicle of genuine elastic resin was very soon formed on its surface. Alcohol, mixed with the juice, separated from it flakes of that resin.

When the caout-chouc, in a dry state, such as it is sent into Europe, is exposed to fire, it becomes soft, swells, exhales a foetid odour, and shrinks as it burns.

Elastic

Elastic resin is not soluble in water. We know not in what manner saline matters act upon this substance. Macquer, after trying to dissolve it in various menstrua, was convinced of what had been before asserted by Messrs de la Condamine and Fresneau, (*Academy, year 1751*), that alcohol was incapable of acting upon it, but that oils dissolved it with the help of heat. However, as he wished to reduce it to a liquid state, so that it might be made use of in that form, and might recover its properties by the evaporation of the solvent liquor, he was obliged to employ another menstruum than oils; because oils, however volatile, always altered the elastic resin, and became fixed in it so as to weaken its strength, and destroy its elasticity. He, at length, dissolved this substance in highly rectified æther; and it, being so very subject to evaporation, perfectly suited his purpose: (*Academy, year 1768*). And, though that liquor be indeed very dear, yet he thought it might be of some consequence to make known to the public a method of making some very useful instruments, such as catheters, by putting, on a waxen mould, successive layers of this solution, till they be of the required thickness. When the catheter is dry, let it be immersed in boiling water, which, by melting the wax, separates it from the mould. The softness and elasticity of a catheter of this substance, render it the most proper for persons who find it necessary to carry such an instrument about with them.

These are all the particulars of the history of gum elastic that were known to the world before the month of April 1781; at which time M. Berniard, distinguished by the accuracy of his experiments, inserted in the *Journal de Physique* an excellent memoir on this singular

lar substance. That chemist concludes from his experiments, that elastic resin is a peculiar fat oil, coloured by a matter soluble in alcohol, and contaminated with the foot of the smoke to which each layer of the resin must be exposed, in order to dry it. Water produces no alteration upon it: alcohol, assisted by a boiling heat, discolours it. Caustic fixed alkali is incapable of acting upon it. The concentrated sulphuric acid reduces it to a carbonaceous state, and is itself, at the same time, tinged with a black colour, and takes the smell and the volatility of the sulphureous acid. The common, or weak nitric acid, acts on this resin in the same way as on cork, and gives it a yellow colour; the nitric acid, strongly concentrated, decomposes it very rapidly; the muriatic acid produces no sort of alteration upon it; rectified sulphuric æther did not dissolve it: This fact must appear singular, as the author observes, to all those who know the accuracy and veracity of Macquer. Nitric æther did dissolve it. This solution is yellow, and affords, by evaporation, a transparent substance, friable, and soluble in alcohol;—in a word, a genuine resin, formed, according to this author, by the action of the nitric acid on the elastic caout-chouc. The volatile oils of lavender, aspic, and turpentine dissolved it with the help of a gentle heat; but they form clammy fluids, which stick to the hands, and cannot therefore be applied to any useful purpose. A solution of elastic resin by oil of aspic, when mixed with alcohol, deposited white flakes, which were insoluble in hot water, but floated on the surface of that fluid, and became, by cooling, white and solid like wax; in a word, they formed a genuine, fixed, concrescible oil. Oil of camphor dissolved elastic resin by simple maceration. When the solution was evaporated,

ated, the camphor was volatilized; and there remained in the capsule an amber-coloured matter, of a firm consistency, but scarce gluey, and easily soluble in alcohol. Fixed oils, when boiled upon elastic resin, dissolve it: wax likewise dissolves it. This substance does not melt by a boiling heat; but when exposed to the action of fire in a silver spoon, it is reduced into a thick black oil: It then exhales white vapours; after which it remains fat and clammy, though exposed to the air for several months; nor does it ever again recover its dryness and elasticity, which are so necessary to fit it for the purposes to which it is applied. Lastly, M. Berniard concluded his experiments on this substance, by analysing it by naked fire. From an ounce of gum elastic he obtained a very little phlegm; an oil, which, though at first clear and light, became afterwards thick and coloured; and ammoniac, the quantity of which he does not specify: There remained a coal, similar to those of other resinous substances, which weighed 12 grains. This chemist ascribes the origin of the ammoniac to the soot which colours gum elastic.

On this analysis we may observe, that it does not determine, in a very accurate manner, the nature of elastic resin: for acids act not on this substance in the same way as on fat oils; they act on these bodies with much more rapidity than on gum elastic: neither do caustic alkalis reduce it to a saponaceous state; nor does it melt, unless a much stronger heat be applied to it than what is sufficient to reduce the most solid fixed oils to a state of fluidity: and, besides, no fixed oil ever becomes dry and elastic like elastic resin, &c. &c. In his fifth experiment, too, the author asserts this gum to consist of two distinct substances, the nature of which he does not explain;

plain ; and concludes with representing it as a product of human industry. From these reflections, and many others which might be added, concerning these experiments of M. Berniard's, which are in other respects very well performed, we are induced to think, that much still remains to be done, as he himself acknowledges, before we can be fully acquainted with the properties of this substance, or decide with certainty concerning its nature.

C H A P.

C H A P. XVI.

Of the Pure Fæcula of Vegetables.

THE juices of vegetables, when elaborated in their vessels, become thick, and are, by degrees, deposited on the surfaces of their fibres, where they contribute to their increase and nourishment, or are accumulated in a more or less solid form, in the different organs of which the vegetable consists. After speaking of the fluid parts of these organic substances, we come next to examine the substance of which the contexture of their solids is formed.—We are, as yet, far from being sufficiently acquainted with the nature of all those solid matters which compose the organs of plants. However, those particulars which are known to us, on this head, shew that those organs, when treated by processes which we are going to describe, are reducible to a dry, pulverulent, insipid, substance, either white, grey, or variegated with different colours, insoluble in cold water, and seemingly earthy, which is called *fæculum*.

To obtain this substance, the root, stem, leaves, or seed of a plant, is pounded down to a pulp with a pestle.

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When these parts are succulent, there is no occasion for adding water to assist the process; but this fluid is usually employed to facilitate the separation of the fibres, and to take up the attenuated, pulverulent parts. When reduced by this process to pulp, the vegetable substance is then squeezed; the juice, or water obtained from it by pressure, is either turbid, white, or coloured; and it gradually deposits, by rest, a flaky matter, partly fibrous, and sometimes pulverulent, which is the true fæculum of the plant. Some parts of vegetables appear to consist entirely of this matter; such as the seeds of gramineous and leguminous plants, tuberculous roots, &c. These parts usually afford the finest fæculum, and the greatest quantity of that matter. As to the tender stems and leaves, their texture, being more fibrous, never affords, when treated by this process, any thing but a coarse, coloured, filamentous substance, which is known by the name of *coarse fæculum*. If, after being thoroughly dried, these be reduced to powder, and the powder lixiviated, the water takes up a much finer fæculum, precisely of the same nature with that of tuberculous roots and gramineous seeds. In the eye of the chemist, therefore, there is no other difference between these two kinds of fæcula, but that the first is produced from a part which is less fibrous, not so perfectly organized, and apparently formed of small cells, in which Nature has deposited a dry or farinaceous mucilage; whereas the second, being wrought into a tissue of fibres, needs to have its organization destroyed, and to be attenuated by art.

Strictly speaking, all the solid parts of vegetables are capable of affording a sort of fæculum. But that which is prepared for the arts, for pharmacy, and for aliments, must here be more immediately the object of our attention. The fæcula of briony, potatoe, cassava, sago, salsop,

lop, starch, are those which deserve to be particularly taken notice of, as applied to these purposes.

1. To prepare the fæcula of briony; take the freshest roots of the plant, strip off the bark, rasp the root to pieces, and then submit them to the press. The juice squeezed out by the force of the press is white, and deposits a very fine fæculum. At the end of four and twenty hours, decant off the juice; dry the fæcula. As the juice must have left in it a certain quantity of extract, it is very acrid, and purges violently. If washed, before being dried, it becomes finer and whiter, but loses at the same time its purgative powers. But this way of preparing the fæcula of briony affords only a very small quantity. Much more may be obtained by diluting in water the mass which remains in the press, passing that water through a hair-sieve, and suffering it to stand undisturbed, till it deposite the fæcula which it contains. When this is deposited, let the water be decanted off, and the sediment dried. This fæculum obtained by washing the lees, is not of a purgative nature like the former, as the water has carried off the extractive matter in which that virtue resided. M. Baumé has observed, that the fæculum of briony, when well washed, bears an exact resemblance to starch, and that hair-powder might be made of it; by which means, the wheat made use of for that article would be spared for other purposes. The fæcula of the roots of calves-foot and cornflag are prepared in the same way for medical use.

2. Potatoes, being so plenteous, and affording in a crop such large increase, form one of the most useful articles of food. We can very easily extract from them a great deal of very fine white fæculum, that becomes, by roasting, boiling in water, &c. a nourishing article of food. This fæculum may be obtained by grating down
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the potatoes on a sieve, and pouring plenty of water tip on them. The fluid carries off the finest and most attenuated portion of the fæcula, and, after standing for some time undisturbed, deposits it. Decant off the water; dry the fæculum by a gentle heat: it is now in the state of a very fine light white powder. For the preparation of large quantities of this powder, mills, or a sort of graters turning on cylinders, have been contrived, which appear to be very happily adapted to the purpose.

3. The Americans extract, from the root of a very acrid plant called *manioc*, a very pleasant, nourishing fæculum, to which they give the name of Cassava. In preparing it, they strip the root of its bark, grate it down, and put it into a rush-bag, of a conical figure, and a very slight loose texture, and hang the bag upon a stick, resting horizontally on two wooden forks. To the lower end of this bag they fix a very heavy vessel, which, by its weight, squeezes out the juice, and, at the same time, receives it as it runs. The juice is a very acrid and noxious poison. When the fæcula are sufficiently pressed, and all the juice drawn off, it is then dried by exposure to smoke, and passed through a sieve; and now it is in a proper state for being baked into cassava. It is now spread on an hot iron gridiron, and turned till it be so completely roasted, as to take, on both sides, a reddish yellow colour. In this state it is called Cassava Bread. When exposed to heat in a basin, and stirred from time to time, it takes, as it dries, a granulated form; in which state it is called *Couac*. From the juice that was squeezed from the fæcula, there is, by degrees, a very fine sweet-tasted fæculum precipitated, which is called *Moussache*, and used in pastry.

4. Sago

4. Sago is a dry fæculum, reduced to grains, and a little reddened by the action of fire, which we get from Java, and from the Molucca and Philippine islands.—It is extracted from a sort of palm-tree, called in the Moluccas *Landan*. The trunk of that tree incloses a sweet marrow, which the inhabitants extract by splitting the tree longitudinally. They then scrape down this marrow, put it into a sort of cone or funnel made of the bark of a tree, place the cone upon an hair-sieve, and pour upon it a good deal of water.—The fluid conveys with it, through the holes of the sieve, the finest and whitest part of the marrow, leaving the fibrous part still upon the sieve.—The water impregnated with the attenuated part of the marrow is received into pots, in which the fæculum is soon deposited, and it becomes transparent.—The water is now decanted off, and the sediment passed through small plates perforated with holes, which give it the granulated form by which sago is usually distinguished.—The reddish colour of the surfaces of the grains is owing to the action of the fire by which they are dried.—These grains become soft and transparent in boiling-water. With milk or broth they make a sort of soup, which is light, and far from disagreeable to the taste, and is greatly recommended in phthical cases.

5. Salep, salop, salab, &c. is a substance which the inhabitants of the East prepare from a species of *orchis*. They select the finest bulbs of that plant, first peel them, and then steep them in cold, and boil them in hot water; next, after the water is well drained from them, they are strung in bunches, and dried in the air. M. Jean Moulé gives another process for the preparation of salep, by which it may be prepared from any species of orchis.—

The roots must be rubbed, either dry or in water, with a brush, to remove the exterior pellicle, and then dried in an oven. They then become very hard and transparent. But they may be very easily reduced to a powder; and this powder, diluted in hot water, forms a nourishing jelly, the virtues of which Geoffroy mentions with very lavish praise, as highly efficacious against all diseases occasioned by an acidity of the lymph, more especially against consumptions and the bilious dysentery.

C H A P.

C H A P. XVII.

Of the Farina of Wheat, and of Starch.

STARCH, properly so called, is a *fæculum* precisely of the same nature with those of which we have already given an account: But as the farina of wheat, of which starch is a constituent part, is one of the most important matters that can engage the attention of the chemist, we shall descend to a much more particular account of this than we have given of any of the other *fæcula*.

What is called farina, is in general a dry, friable, insipid substance, capable of acquiring sapidity and digestibility by the action of fire, and consisting of several matters which may be very easily separated from one another. This substance is disposed by nature in the seeds of gramineous plants, especially in those of wheat, rye, barley, oats, rice, &c. Even leguminous plants appear to contain a compound of an analogous nature. There is, however, no other substance but the farina of wheat, which possesses all the same properties: none but this farina possesses that just proportion of the constituent principles to which alone all its distinguishing

E 2 properties

properties can belong. Although the farina or flour of wheat has, from time immemorial, been used as a principal article of food, yet it has only within this short time begun to be chemically examined. Messrs Becari, an Italian physician, and Kessel Meyer in Germany, are the first chemists who attempted to separate the different matters of which farina consists. Messrs Rouelle, Spielman, Malouin, Parmentier, Poulletier de la Salle, and Macquer, have prosecuted these researches a great way farther than the above mentioned naturalists. M. Parmentier especially has prosecuted them with very uncommon zeal and industry. His researches into the nature of these alimentary substances, the principles of farina, the different kinds of *fæcula*, and concerning nutritious vegetables in general, are undeniably the most compleat and accurate of any thing that we have of the kind.

Water is, of all agents, the most useful, as it produces the least alteration on the various matters with which it becomes impregnated, or which it separates, according to the laws of their solubility. Accordingly, it is by this fluid that the different matters of which the farina of wheat consists are most successfully obtained separate from one another. In performing this true analysis, a paste is first to be composed of the farina with water; the paste must then be kneaded in an earthen vessel, with water pouring upon it from a cock; the fluid, as it falls upon the paste, takes up from it a very fine white powder, by means of which it acquires the colour and consistency of milk: let this process be continued till the water run off clear. The farina is now found to be naturally separated into three distinct substances—a grey elastic matter that sticks to the hand, and on account of its properties has gained the name of the glutinous, or

vegeto-

vegeto-animal part,—a white powder which falls to the bottom of the water, and is the *feculum* or starch,—and a matter which remains dissolved in the water, and seems to be a sort of mucilaginous extract. Let us proceed to an examination of the properties of each of these three substances.

§ I. *Of the Glutinous Part of Wheat.*

THE glutinous part is a tenacious, ductile, elastic matter, of a whitish grey colour. It may be extended to twenty times its natural length; and it then seems to consist of fibres or filaments, disposed beside one another in the same direction in which it has been drawn out. When the power by which it was extended ceases to act, it then returns with elastic force to its primary form. By drawing it out in different directions, it may be rendered so fine as to resemble, in the polish of its surface, the texture of the membranes of animals. In this state, it adheres with considerable force to dry bodies, and forms a very tenacious glue, which was used by some people, for the purpose of re-uniting pieces of broken porcelain, long before chemists had found out the way of obtaining it in large quantities. M. Beccari observes, that in the best flour the proportion of the glutinous matter is from a fifth to a third part, or even more:—he remarks, too, that this proportion varies, according to the season, and the nature of the corn.

The glutinous matter has an agreeable and somewhat mucous smell; its taste is insipid; it swells amazingly when exposed to a strength of heat sufficient to dry it quickly. It dries very well by a moderate heat, or even in the dry air. It then becomes semitranspa-

rent and hard, like a strong glue, and, like that substance, breaks with noise, and with a smooth fracture. If, when in this state, it be laid on a burning coal, or held over the flame of a taper, it exhibits all the characteristics of an animal matter; it crackles, swells, becomes liquid, is agitated, and burns in the same way as a feather, or a piece of horn, exhaling a strong foetid smell. When distilled in a retort, it affords, like animal matters, water impregnated with ammoniac, ammoniacal carbonate, and an empyreumatic oil: the carbonaceous residue is very difficult to incinerate, and is found to contain no fixed alkali.

The gluten, when exposed fresh to a moist and hot air, is altered, and actually putrefied in the same manner as animal matters. If it still retain a little starch, then the starch, passing into the state of acid fermentation, retards and modifies the putrid fermentation of the gluten, and reduces it to a state in which it is much like cheese. In this way Rouelle, the younger, prepared, from this gluten, a species of cheese, in taste and smell much the same with Dutch cheese, and that of Gruyere.

Water does not at all dissolve this glutinous matter. When boiled in that fluid, it becomes solid, and loses its tenacity and elasticity, but neither acquires a taste, nor becomes soluble in the saliva. We may however observe, that to the water which was used in making the paste the gluten owes its elasticity and solidity. In the farina, this vegeto-animal matter, which is thus susceptible of a solid elastic form, was in an incoherent and pulverulent state; but when the water is poured upon the farina, and mixed with it, those particles which are of a glutinous nature absorb the fluid, and are by its means so closely united as to form, in a short time, that sort of elastic solid which is known by the name of gluten.

ten. Water, therefore, contributes greatly to the formation of this substance, which is perhaps to be considered as a peculiar compound saturated with water, and, for that reason, not capable of absorbing any more. So true is this, that if it be deprived of its water by desiccation, it loses entirely its elastic and adhesive powers.

Most saline substances act either with more or less force on this gluten. Potash and soda, in a caustic and liquid state, dissolve it with the help of a boiling heat. The solution is turbid, and, on the addition of acids, deposits gluten, which, however, is destitute of elasticity.

The mineral acids dissolve this gluten. The nitric acid dissolves it with great activity; and M. Berthollet has observed, that this gluten, as well as animal substances, gives out azotic gas, when exposed to the action of the nitric acid. After the emission of this elastic fluid, the solution affords a great deal of nitrous gas, and takes a yellow colour. By evaporation it affords oxalic acid in crystals. The sulphuric and the muriatic acids form with this substance brown or violet solutions. A sort of oily matter is separated from these solutions: the gluten exists in them, in a real state of decomposition. M. Poulletier, who has made many experiments on this matter, has discovered, that, from these combinations, dissolved in water or alcohol, and evaporated in the open air, there may be ammoniacal salts obtained.

From what we have related concerning this substance it appears, that it is entirely different from all of those which we have before taken notice of, as existing in vegetables; and that in many of its distinguishing properties, it bears a great resemblance to the fibrous part of blood. It is to this gluten the farina of wheat owes its property of forming a clammy paste with water, and its readiness to rise with leaven. It appears either not to

exist, or to exist only in a very small proportion in the farina of other vegetable substances, such as rye, barley, buckwheat, rice, &c. all of which form solid, opaque pastes, scarcely ductile, and brittle, and which can scarce be raised when exposed to the same temperature by which paste of the farina of wheat is raised. No other substance but flour of wheat, therefore, is possessed of all the qualities necessary for making good bread.

M. Berthollet is of opinion, that this glutinous substance, like animal matters, contains phosphoric salts, which are the occasion of its coal being so difficult to incinerate. Rouelle the younger has discovered a glutinous substance, resembling that of the farina of wheat, in the green fæcula of plants, which afford, by analysis, ammoniacal carbonate and empyreumatic oil, like the vegeto-animal matter of which we have been speaking.

§ II. *Of the Starch of Wheat.*

STARCH, the amylaceous fæculum, is the most copious part of the farina. This is the substance which is carried off, and afterwards precipitated from the water with which the paste is washed in order to obtain the pure gluten. This substance is very fine, feels soft, and has no perceptible taste. Its colour, when it is extracted by the process above described, is a dirty grey white; but the manufacturers of starch render it exceedingly white, by steeping it in an acid water which they call *sour water*. It appears, from the experiments of M. Poullétier, that the fermentation which takes place in that fluid whitens and purifies the starch, by attenuating and even destroying the extractive mucous substance which is precipitated with it in the first washing. Starch, chemically considered, is a mucilage of a peculiar
nature.

nature. This mucilage, which, by some chemists, has been mistaken for an earth, is very different from the gluten. It does not, like the gluten, diffuse an empyreumatic smell, when it burns. When distilled by naked fire, it affords an acid phlegm, of a brown colour, and, towards the conclusion of the process, a very thick empyreumatic oil. The coaly residue is easily enough incinerated; and its ashes are found to contain fixed alkali.

Starch is not soluble in cold water; but when boiled in water, it forms with the fluid a glue, or rather what in French is denominated by the peculiar name of *empois*. This compound, when exposed to damp air, loses by degrees its consistency, ferments, becomes sour, and is covered over with mouldiness.

The nitric acid affords, with this *fæculum*, oxalic acid, perfectly the same with that of which we have spoken in the foregoing chapter.

As starch forms the greatest part of flour, there can be no doubt of its being the principal alimentary substance contained both in flour and in bread.

§ III. Of the Extractive Mucilaginous Part of the Farina.

BY evaporating the clear water that had been used in washing the paste, and had deposited the starch, M. Poulletier obtained a viscous, adhesive matter, of a brown yellow colour, the taste of which was faintly saccharine. This substance, to which he gave the name of *mucoso-saccharine*, displayed, in combustion and distillation, all the same phenomena with sugar. By it, the acid fermentation is produced in the water which swims over starch; for, as Macquer has observed, starch is not at all soluble in cold

cold water. The mucoſo-faccharine matter exiſts in the farina of wheat only in very a ſmall proportion. It may, poſſibly, be more copious in the farina of ſome other vegetable ſubſtances.

However ſmall the proportion of this ſubſtance in the farina of wheat, yet there can be no doubt of its acting a peculiar part in the fermentation which takes place in paſte, and cauſes it to riſe. The nature of this motion, ſo neceſſary to render bread wholeſome, is ſtill but very little known. It would appear to be nothing more but the beginning of a putrid fermentation in the gluten, an acid fermentation in the ſtarch, and perhaps a ſpiritous fermentation in the mucoſo-faccharine matter. Theſe three incipient fermentations, which mutually oppoſe each other, are perhaps what produces the compound, ſo much lighter than dough, which, by baking, and a proper expoſure to heat, forms bread. One thing certain is, that, in bread, all the three ſubſtances which we have here examined, are found exiſting together, but ſo much altered, that they can no longer be extracted ſeparately. Even the action of heat alone, without the motion of fermentation, is ſufficient to change the nature of theſe three ſubſtances, and combine them in ſuch a manner, that even from bread, unleavened, or baked without being raiſed, Malouin and M. Poulletier tell us, the gluten can no longer be obtained.

From theſe particulars we underſtand, how that all flour but that of wheat, and, ſtill more, the leguminous or farinaceous feeds, ſuch as beans, peas, cheſnuts, &c. is far from poſſeſſing the qualities requiſite for making good bread.

C H A P. XVIII.

Of Vegetable Colouring Matters, and their Application to the Art of Dyeing.

VEGETABLES contain colouring matters through all their organs. These matters are extremely various. It often happens, that a vegetable matter which has, of itself, no apparent colour, assumes a very distinct one, when exposed to the action of certain menstua. The art of dyeing, all the processes of which are entirely chemical, is founded on the knowledge of the solubility of these colouring parts of vegetables, in various menstua,—of the way of applying them, so as to communicate colour to other substances,—and of rendering them permanent and tenacious on those substances. In examining the properties of each of the colouring matters, we will have occasion to give some account of the principles of this important art, on which Messrs Hellôt, Macquer, le Pileur d' Auligny, Hecquet d' Orval, and the Abbé Mazéas, have already published excellent works.

It appears that the colouring matter of vegetables, properly so called, is still unknown. Roulle was of opinion, that the green part, so copious in the vegetable kingdom,

was similar in nature to the gluten of the farina. But it is certain, that this matter exhibits different chemical characteristics, according to the diversity of the bases with which it is united. It is, therefore, rather the base, than the colouring part itself, of which we speak, when we say, such a colour is extractive, and such another colour resinous, &c. The substance which really colours those parts of vegetables that are employed in the arts, is, no doubt, a very subtle body, perhaps not less so than the principle of smells. There is even some reason to think, that it consists solely in a certain modification of the solid and liquid parts of vegetables.

It may be proper to recollect here, that the colouring of vegetables depends, in a great measure, on the contact of light. But, in what manner the contact of light contributes to the production of colours, is a problem, of which the researches of the natural philosopher have, as yet, afforded no solution. Whatever that may be, as it is impossible to separate the colouring matter entirely from the vegetable base to which it is united, it is generally agreed to consider these two substances together as the colouring matter of plants.

Of all chemists, Macquer has best distinguished the nature of the different colouring matters of vegetables, considered with respect to the art of dyeing: And his theory concerning the application and the fixation of colours on other substances in dyeing, is beyond a doubt the most satisfactory. As I intend here to connect that theory of dyeing, with the history of the chemical properties of the colouring parts of vegetables, I shall begin with the consideration of those properties.

1. A great many vegetable colouring matters, which are either extractive or saponaceous, dissolve very readily in water. Bastard rocket, madder, logwood, redwood, and
 Brasil

Brasil wood afford yellow or red colours of this sort. It is easy to see, that matters dyed with these colours, must lose their tincture in water: on this account, there is employed, to render these colours permanent, some additional matter capable of fixing and decomposing them; such as crude tartar, alum, and other salts. These salts are called *corrosives*. A solitary acid might produce the same effect; but would alter the colouring matter. The superfluous portion of the acid of the alum combines with the alkali of the saponaceous colouring extract, and occasions the precipitation of the resinous part of that extract, which is then insoluble in water, upon the substance intended to be dyed. This colouring part, however, which is rendered insoluble by the alum, or the corrosive, is of two kinds. The first is very solid, and resists the action of air, of soaps, and of all the liquors used by dyers as proofs. The other is liable to be altered by air, and still more by the proof liquors: it is called a false dye. In order to ascertain the nature of these colours, and the durability of dyes in general, M. Berthollet has proposed the use of the oxygenated muriatic acid. That acid effects, in a very short time, by means of its excess of oxigene, what the vital air of the atmosphere takes up a longer course of time to accomplish: And, by observing what quantity of this acid is necessary to discolour and entirely whiten any dyed stuff, as well as the time which it takes to produce the effect, a judgment may be formed of the solidity and the durability of the colours thus submitted to examination.

It is observable that wool takes a dye better than any other substance; and, next after wool, silk, cotton, and flax, in the order in which they are here mentioned, receive a dye, each of them with more difficulty than the preceding one, and lose it sooner.

Those

Those authors who have written upon the art of dyeing, have maintained different opinions concerning the way in which colouring matters act on the substances exposed to their operation. Many have supposed, that in proportion as the pores of the substance to be dyed are more or fewer, greater or smaller, the colouring matter is more or less completely applied to it; and that the reason why wool takes a colour better than silk or thread, is because its pores are more open and more numerous than those of either of these substances. But Macquer thinks the true cause which renders the application to any substance more or less easy, is, the relation between the colouring matter and the body to be dyed being nearer or more remote. Dyeing, in his opinion, is actually nothing but painting, which succeeds and lasts only by virtue of an intimate affinity between the colouring matter and the dyed substance. That celebrated chemist adopted this opinion in consequence of the numerous experiments which he made in the art of dyeing; which is indeed highly indebted to his discoveries.

2. There is another class of colouring matters, which seem to consist of resin and saponaceous extract. Macquer calls them *resino-terreous* matters. When these matters are boiled in water, the resinous substance which they contain is melted, and diffused through the fluid, by means of the action of the heat, and the solution of the saponaceous part: but it is precipitated as the bath or decoction cools. When, therefore, wool, or any other matter, is immersed in a decoction of mixed colouring matter of this kind, the resin is separated by cooling; and, without requiring any farther process, fixes on the substance thus exposed to it. Not being soluble in water, it forms a permanent dye. Colouring matters of this kind are obtained from almost all astringent vegetables, such as the
hulks

husks of nuts, the roots of the walnut tree, or of dock, fumach, bark, of alder, sandal wood, &c. These colours are all yellow, and are called by the dyers' root-colours. They are generally used to form a good ground, on which colours of a higher lustre may be laid. We may further remark, that the colouring matters, for the application of which no particular preparation, either of themselves, or of the bodies to which they are to be applied is requisite, afford the simplest tincture, and are the easiest applied to use.

3. The colouring principle of various other substances exists in a matter that is purely resinous, and insoluble in water. Several of these matters are not soluble even in alcohol; but, in alkalis, they are all dissolved, and reduced into a sort of saponaceous state, in which they are soluble in water.—The following are the principal colours of this sort used in dyeing.

A. The annatto, a kind of *fæculum* obtained by maceration from the seeds of the *urucu* putrefied in water. This *fæculum* is deposited during the putrefaction of the substances. It is at first red, but, in course of time, becomes of a brick-dust colour. Stuffs intended to be dyed with this matter, are immersed into a lixivium of this paste, with the *cendres gravelées*, which we are shortly to describe, mixed together in water. Without the assistance of any corrosive, there is deposited on the substances immersed into this lixivium a golden yellow, or orange colour, of considerable beauty.

B. The flower of *Carthamus* or bastard saffron affords, by the same process, a very beautiful red colour. This flower has two different colouring parts; the one purely extractive, and soluble in water; the other resinous.—To obtain the latter, the soluble part of the *carthamus* must first be carefully washed away: What remains

mains after the washing must be mixed with the *cendres gravelées*, or soda; this mixture is then to be formed into a lixivium, and employed in dyeing. But as the alkali alters the colouring matter, and tarnishes the colour, the dyed substance is steeped in water, acidified by lemon juice. This acid, seizing the alkali, the colouring matter is left at liberty; in consequence of which it regains its original properties, and becomes red. By a similar process, there is a coloured *fæculum* obtained from carthamus, which, mixed with Briançon-chalk in powder, composes the *rouge* made use of by the ladies.

C. Archil is a paste prepared from moss and lichen, macerated in urine, with lime. The lime disengages the volatile alkali; and that causes the red colour to appear. Archil diluted in water communicates a dye without any other preparation with alkalis. It gives a violet colour; but this is a false dye, which is altered in the air, and rendered yellow by the action of acids.

D. Indigo, the colour of which is a deep violet blue, seemingly of a cupreous nature, is a *fæculum* prepared at St Domingo, and in all the Antilles, &c. by macerating the stalk of the *Antillo* or indigo plant in stone troughs, with water. The water becomes blue; and, after it has been for some time violently stirred, the *fæculum* is precipitated. The indigo separated from the water is put into cloths to drain. It is then dried in small wooden boxes, and, when dry, broken into pieces. When it floats on water, and burns entirely away on a red-hot shovel, it is esteemed good. The colouring part of it is extracted by alkalis, and applied to the matters intended to be dyed, without any farther preparation.—It cannot be brightened by acids, as these would alter the colour.

4. There are certain colouring matters soluble in oils. Alkanet, or the red root of a sort of bugloss, communicates its colour to oil. Alcohol likewise dissolves several colouring matters: Green *fæcula* dissolve in it as well as in oil. It may be easily understood, that these colours cannot be used in dyeing; because the liquids necessary to extract them cannot be employed.

Such are the principal facts at present known concerning the nature of vegetable colours. From these it appears, that any of the immediate principles of vegetables may become the base of their colouring parts; as we find them to be saponaceous, resinous, and extractive.—Some of them even appear to be of the same nature with fixed oils, and are not soluble either in water or in alcohol, but dissolve readily enough in alkali. Lastly, There are, according to Rouelle, some of these colouring parts of the same nature with the glutinous part of vegetables.

There is every reason to think, that future enquiries may discover various other properties in these matters which are so copious in vegetables, and thus carry to still higher perfection the art of dyeing, one of those arts to which chemistry is capable of rendering the most essential services.

C H A P. XIX.

Of the Analysis of Plants by Naked Fire.

AFTER examining all the matters which can be obtained from vegetables, by such simple means as produce no alteration in their nature, and considering these matters as the immediate principles of those organized bodies; it will next be proper to consider what alterations they are liable to suffer from fire.

The ancient chemists were acquainted with no other method of analysing vegetables but this; and all their enquiries into the nature of these substances were directed only to discover, how much spirit, oil, and volatile salt they afforded by distillation in the retort. At present, we give but little credit to the results of this process.—We know, that all plants give nearly the same products; and the distillation of a great many different vegetables, by chemists in other respects very skilful and highly respectable, has only served to undeceive us with respect to this analysis. How, indeed, can it be thought, that the action of fire, which is exerted on all the different principles contained in a vegetable, extract, mucilage, oil, resin, saline matter, gluten, &c. and which decomposes each

each of them in a peculiar manner, can afford any certain information concerning the nature and the quantity of those principles? especially when we observe, that the products of these different decompositions form, by mutual combination, new bodies, which did not exist in the vegetable under examination. The analysis of vegetables in the retort is therefore false and complicated.

However, as in a chemical examination of any substance, we should not refuse the use of any means which art supplies for the discovery of its nature, we may have recourse to this analysis, and observe its effects, provided we be sufficiently on our guard against giving too much credit to its results: Nay, it sometimes happens, that when, in a series of experiments on any vegetable substance, in order to discover its chemical properties, we compare the effects of aqueous, spiritous, and oily menstrua on that substance, with the alterations which it suffers from fire; these alterations accord with the action of the solvents, and shew, by the products of the distillation, what matter is contained in a larger or a smaller quantity in the vegetable, the nature of its salt, &c. But, that we may be able to make such important deductions from an analysis by naked fire, it is requisite, 1. That we be well acquainted with the manner in which fire acts on each of the immediate or proximate principles of vegetables, the extract, the mucilage, the saline matter, the oily juices, fluid or dry, &c. 2. That we compare the products of the distillation of the whole vegetable with those which its proximate principles generally afford, when treated in the same manner. 3. That we, at the same time, analyse the vegetable by menstrua, in order that we may distinguish its proximate principles, and draw some useful inferences concerning the alterations which it suffers from fire.

The process necessary for the distillation of vegetables by naked fire, is very easy and very simple.—Put into a glass or earthen retort a certain quantity of the dry vegetable :—care must be taken, however, to fill the vessel only half, or not more than two-thirds full. Place the retort in a reverberatory furnace ; to its neck adapt a balloon of a proper size. There used to be formerly recommended for this purpose, a balloon perforated with a small hole, to afford a passage for the air which was said to be disengaged, in a smaller or a larger quantity, from the vegetables, and was likely, if confined, to break the vessels. At present we know, that the aeriform fluid which escapes from these bodies, when subjected to distillation, is never air, but rather carbonic acid and hydrogenous gas, with carbonaceous matter dissolved in them. But as these elastic fluids are products of the vegetable decomposed by the action of fire, as well as the phlegm, the oils, and the volatile salts ; it is no less necessary to collect them than these latter substances. For this purpose, there may be employed a perforated receiver, joined to a curved syphon, entering by one end into a bell-glass filled with water, or rather with mercury. By this means, the liquid products are collected into the receiver, and the aeriform products into glass vessels, placed on the shelf of a pneumato-chemical apparatus. When the substance distilled is such as can afford any concrete salt, there is put between the retort and the receiver an adapter, or long glass vessel, in the form of a spindle, on the sides of which the salt fixes as it is sublimated. In this sort of distillation, the fire should be gradually and cautiously applied, that the products may be obtained in the order of their volatility, without being confounded together. The process begins with placing a few coals under the retort, and the fire is by degrees increased

increased till the vessel become red-hot, and the passing of the products into the receiver appear to have ceased. The retort is now suffered to cool, the luting removed from the apparatus, and the products examined.

Although the products obtained by the distillation of vegetables are never to be entirely depended upon, yet so much do they differ from one another, that they well deserve to be carefully distinguished.

The first product obtained is an aqueous liquor, impregnated with some odorous and saline principles. This phlegm assumes by degrees more colour, and more saline properties. After it, comes a coloured oil, the colour of which becomes deeper, as the process advances. This oil is sometimes light and fluid, at other times weighty and liable to become solid. It constantly exhales a strong empyreumatic smell. At the same time with it, there is a smaller or a greater quantity of elastic fluids disengaged; which are either carbonic acid, or hydrogenous gas, or, which is most frequently the case, a mixture of these two substances. At the same instant, too, ammoniacal carbonate is sublimated, if the nature of the vegetable be such as to afford it. After all these matters have passed, the vegetable is found reduced to a carbonaceous state. Let us now return to a more particular examination of each of these products, and attempt to distinguish what is their nature, and to what substances they owe their formation.

The phlegm is owing to the water which enters into the composition of the vegetable, and in part to the water of its vegetation; and this especially, when the body analysed is not entirely dry: and accordingly, the quantity of this phlegm is greater or less, in proportion as the vegetable has been more or less thoroughly dried before it was submitted to distillation. This phlegm is coloured

of a lighter or a deeper red by the small portion of oily matter which it carries off with it, and which is reduced to a saponaceous state by the salt that is usually dissolved in it. The saline matter in union with it, is most commonly acid; on which account this phlegm usually reddens syrup of violets, and produces an effervescence with alkaline carbonates. This acid belongs to the mucilages and oils. The phlegm is sometimes of an alkaline nature, as in the distillation of nitrous and cruciform plants, and of emulsive and farinaceous seeds. It is frequently ammoniacal; because the ammoniac which follows immediately after the acid, combines with it. Of this fact full evidence may be obtained, by throwing a little fixed alkali or quicklime into the phlegm: When it is ammoniacal, there is a lively smell diffused from the ammoniac.

The oils obtained from vegetables by distillation in a retort, are all strong-smelling and high-coloured, and exhibit all of them nearly the same properties. Those parts of vegetables which contain a great quantity of these inflammable fluids, such as emulsive seeds, afford, when analysed, a good deal of oil. The odorous plants afford an oil which, in the beginning of the process of distillation, retains somewhat of their smell, but soon assumes the common characteristics of all these oils, that is to say, the colour, gravity, and empyreumatic smell by which they are distinguished. All of these fluids are highly inflammable; the nitrous acid causes them to flame: they are soluble in alcohol, and bear, all of them, some resemblance to the vegetable from which they were obtained. By rectification, they may all be rendered very fluid, very light, colourless, soluble in alcohol; in a word, they may thus be reduced to the state of æthereal or volatile oils.

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With respect to the volatile salt, which is nothing but ammoniacal carbonate, it is obtained only from a few vegetables; but we must not imagine, as has been advanced by some chemists, that it is to be obtained only from cruciform plants. All plants, in general, containing a certain quantity of glutinous or vegeto-animal matter, afford more or less ammoniac; because, as has been fully proved by M. Berthollet, that principle of vegetables always contains azote. It very seldom happens, however, that any quantity of it can be obtained in a concrete state: it is often dissolved in the last portions of the phlegm. This salt is produced by the union of the azote with the hydrogen of the oil; on which account, it does not usually pass till the end of the distillation. It even appears, that what is carried up by the phlegm in the analysis of some plants, such as the cruciferous plants, poppy, rue, &c. is always the product of some new combination; for Rouelle the younger has shewn, that the plants themselves do not contain it in their natural state.

The elastic fluids which are disengaged during the distillation of vegetables, are to be included among the products that may be obtained from them. Their nature appears to depend on the nature of the vegetable. A plant which contains a good deal of oily combustible fluids, affords hydrogenous gas. Mucilages, on the contrary, afford carbonic acid. We have mentioned, under the article Oxalic Acid, that Messrs Bergman and Fontana have obtained from them a large quantity of carbonic acid, and that Fontana thinks vegetable acids to be composed chiefly of it. It is, therefore, not at all surprising, that mucilages, in which Bergman found the same radical acid as in sugar, should afford carbonic gas when analysed. Lastly, there are some

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vegetable matters which afford azotic gas. These aeriform fluids pass only towards the end of the process of distillation; because they are not disengaged till the instant when the vegetable is totally decomposed. Hales, who was not acquainted with their nature, observed, that the more solid the vegetable, so much the greater was the quantity of the air disengaged from it during its distillation: and he of consequence considered that element as the cement which produced the solidity of vegetable bodies. From what we have had occasion to shew, the reader may easily judge of the truth of this hypothesis.

C H A P.

C H A P. XX.

Of Vegetable Coal, or Charcoal.

CHARCOAL is the black residue of vegetable matters, whose volatile principles have been entirely decomposed in close vessels. None but organic matters, containing the combustible substance known by the name of oil, afford charcoal. The production of the substance which we are beginning to consider, used to be ascribed to the decomposition of this latter substance; but it is now beginning to be understood as a fact, that the carbonaceous matter exists ready formed in the vegetable; and that which is accomplished by the operation of fire, is the separation of the volatile principles that existed in union with it.

Charcoal is generally black, brittle, sonorous, and light. If the vegetable of which it has been formed was very compact, and contained but a small proportion of fluid substance, it still retains a vegetable form. But again, when the plant decomposed, is tender, and contains a good deal of juice, the fluids, as they are disengaged, destroy the organic texture of the vegetable, and

and leave a friable coal, which exhibits not the form of a decomposed vegetable. Different vegetable matters afford coal in greater or less abundance, according to the solidity and the form of their texture. Wood affords much more of this substance than herbs; gums afford more than resins; and resins more than fluid oils. Every different vegetable matter appears to contain this substance in a particular proportion,—if we consider charcoal as one of the immediate principles of vegetables.

Charcoal is a body possessed of singular properties, which are in general but very little known.—Though it be of the highest importance in chemistry, and exhibit phænomena entirely of a singular nature, yet no chemist has as yet engaged in a series of experiments with a view to ascertain its nature. Stahl, who paid more attention to it than it has since obtained from any other person, thought it the principal repository of phlogiston. We know scarce any thing concerning the properties of charcoal, but what relates to the œconomical purposes to which it is applied: the labours of the learned afford no full information concerning it.

The physical properties of charcoal are different, according to the nature and the state of the vegetables from which it is formed. It is sometimes hard, and retains in some degree the organization of the vegetable; at other times it is friable, and somewhat pulverulent. Pure oils afford a coal in very fine, and seemingly levigated molecules, called lamp-black. Its gravity varies in like manner. When well made, it has no perceptible taste or smell. Its colour is subject to as many varieties as its other physical properties; it is either of a lighter or a deeper, a sparkling or a dull colour. But the chemical properties

perties of this product of fire, deserve the most particular examination.

Charcoal exposed in close vessels to the utmost violence of fire, suffers no alteration. When heated in a pneumato-chemical machine, it affords no hydrogenous gas, unless it happen to contain moisture: an intense heat reduces it to vapours. When heated in contact with air, it burns to ashes; but with singular phænomena, which are to be carefully distinguished from those of other combustible matters. As soon as it takes fire, it becomes red, and exhibits a white flame, which is more considerable in proportion as the mass of charcoal is larger. No sort of smoke exhales from it; but it is reduced into carbonic acid, an elastic fluid, which, from the fine experiments of M. Lavoisier, appears to be nothing but a combination of the carbonaceous principle with the oxygenous,—of the latter of which principles three fourths of it consist. It is on this account that charcoal consumes slowly, and leaves nothing but a cinder, more or less white, partly of a saline, and partly of an earthy nature. Different sorts of charcoal are of different degrees of inflammability; and this distinction is the most useful to the arts of all the facts respecting charcoal. Some sorts of it burn readily with flame, and are quickly consumed; others are difficult to kindle, burn but slowly, and remain a long time red-hot, before being reduced to ashes. Some of them,—for instance those of oils,—burn indeed, but with the utmost difficulty. This property they seem to owe to the obstinate adhesion of the carbonaceous principle to the fixed salts of the vegetables.

Charcoal, when exposed to the air, attracts moisture; probably because it is very porous; and perhaps, too, on account of its containing salts in a latent state. When moistened, it affords hydrogenous gas, which is produced

ced by the decomposition of the water : for, when this fluid is passed through an earthen tube, filled with red-hot charcoal, the two bodies are converted into hydrogenous gas and aeriform carbonic acid. Nothing now remains but a little ashes. Rouelle has taken notice that fixed alkali dissolves a pretty considerable quantity of charcoal by fusion.

The sulphuric acid, when exposed to a strong heat with powder of charcoal, is decomposed by this combustible body, which has a stronger affinity with oxygen than sulphur has.

The nitric acid is decomposed with much more rapidity by charcoal. Dr Priestley observed that there was a good deal of nitrous gas produced from this mixture. Macquer saw the nitric acid, with the help of a certain degree of heat, produce a very discernible effervescence with this body. M. Proust has succeeded in kindling charcoal with acid of nitre, the weight of which was one ounce four drams and twenty three grains, in a bottle containing an ounce of distilled water. The result of his experiments is of no small importance : And I shall therefore here insert an account of it in his own words, taken from his *Observations on Pyrophori without alum, &c.* inserted in the *Journal de Medicine* for July 1778.

“ A coal of the extract of carthamus, reduced to powder, and newly calcined, detonized in a very lively manner with the nitrous acid ; and the combustion was so rapid, as to raise the powder in the form of a very beautiful sky-rocket. I calcined, likewise, very fine powder of common charcoal ; and the detonation succeeded very well.

“ Into a glass retort, perfectly dry, I introduced about a dram of powder of charcoal ; after which I poured into the same retort about as much nitrous acid : the nitrous acid

“ acid no sooner reached the bottom of the retort, than a
“ detonation was produced with the utmost rapidity. There
“ proceeded out of the mouth of the retort, as I held it in
“ my hand, a stream of flame, more than four inches in
“ length, carrying with it some of the powder, and very dark-
“ coloured vapours of the nitrous acid : The vapours were
“ condensed into a green and somewhat fuming liquor,
“ which proved to be nitrous acid weakened by the wa-
“ ter which entered into the composition of that which
“ detonized first. I poured a new quantity of nitrous acid
“ on the coal which still remained in the retort, and con-
“ tinued to inflame it in the same way, till the whole quan-
“ tity was exhausted.

“ This experiment I repeated with calcined lamp-black ;
“ the same phenomena were exhibited. In the retort
“ there remained only a very small portion of ashes, some-
“ times half vitrified, and sticking to the bottom of the
“ retort.

“ All charcoal is usually impregnated with a consider-
“ able quantity of moisture. I found that charcoal cal-
“ cined in the evening, was next day unfit for this deto-
“ nation, having acquired, during the intervening space, a
“ sensible quantity of moisture. But, what is very singu-
“ lar, these experiments are so capricious, that they do not
“ always succeed, even with the same charcoal, and the same
“ acid, intermixed in the very same proportions. By the
“ following expedient, I believe, success may be secured :
“ When the acid is poured on the middle of the charcoal,
“ it does not take fire at all ; but, again, when the acid is
“ made to trickle down the sides of the crucible or cap-
“ sule, till it reach the bottom, then detonation infal-
“ libly follows, and the powder is raised and kindled by
“ the nitrous acid. When the nitrous acid is all consum-
“ ed,

“ed, the detonation ceases of course, and the rest of the charcoal remains black.”

We know nothing concerning the action of the other acids on charcoal.

This body, with the help of heat, decomposes all sulphuric salts, forming in consequence sulphures with various bases.

Charcoal causes nitre to detonize; the nitre burns it by means of the vital air which that saline substance affords by the action of fire. There is a preparation made for the purposes of chemistry and pharmacy, which is called *nitre fixed by charcoal*. Mix two parts of nitre with one of powder of charcoal; put the mixture into a red-hot crucible: A lively detonation immediately takes place: And, when this detonation ceases, there remains a white mass which attracts moisture from the atmosphere, and is nothing else but the fixed alkali of the nitre and the charcoal combined with carbonic acid. On lixiviating this matter, the water dissolves the fixed alkali; and what remains, is a substance thought to be of an earthy nature.

Sulphure of potash dissolves charcoal with great facility, both by the dry and by the humid way: it even combines with it more readily than any other substance. We owe this discovery to Rouelle.

Metals do not combine with charcoal; but metallic oxides are reduced when exposed, in contact with this body, to a heat more or less intense. We have already seen, under the article of Metals, that this phenomenon is owing to the near affinity between oxigene and pure carbonaceous matter.

The action of vegetable substances on charcoal, has been but little examined. We know, only, that charcoal mixed with fat oils, renders them susceptible of inflammation by
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the nitrous acid; a fact which confirms Rouelle's beautiful theory concerning the inflammation of oils by that acid.

All that has been here said concerning the known properties of charcoal, tends to prove that this body is a compound of a combustible matter, saline substances, and earths.

The peculiar combustible matter which constitutes more than three fourths of the composition of charcoal, or pure carbonaceous matter, is but little known. It appears only to be one of those bodies which have the greatest affinity with oxigene; so great indeed, that it is capable of separating it from every other substance; and that, in certain circumstances, it exhibits properties much the same with those of native *carbure* of iron.

The uses of charcoal in the arts are sufficiently known: it is likewise of great use in chemical operations.

C H A P. XXI.*Of the Fixed Salts and Earths of Vegetables.*

WHEN a vegetable coal is burnt, there remains a grey, blackish, or white matter, according to the nature of the coal. This substance, which is called *ashes*, is of a very compound nature. When the charcoal is thoroughly burnt, it contains only different saline and earthy substances, mixed with a little iron and a little manganese. When, again, the charcoal does not burn very freely, the ashes produced from it sometimes contain a little inflammable matter which has not been consumed. M. Lavoisier, on examining the ashes of the wood made use of by the manufacturers of saltpetre, found it to contain extractive and resinous-extractive matters. The saline substances obtained by lixiviation from the ashes of charcoal, have received the name of the Fixed Salts of Plants. There are three sorts of salts obtained by the incineration of vegetables, the nature of which we shall here describe.

1. Potash, which is prepared in the North by burning wood, which they there possess in great plenty.
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This salt is very impure; it often contains combustible matters by which its whiteness is impaired, a variety of neutral salts, such as sulphate of potash soda and lime, muriate of potash and soda, a little carbonate of soda, oxide of iron, and earthy matters. To purify this salt, and extract from it pure potash, it is dissolved in the smallest possible quantity of cold water. The fluid takes up the alkali, with some neutral salts; and the earth, charcoal, iron, and sulphate of lime which the potash frequently contains, are separated by filtration. The solution is evaporated to a pellicle, and then suffered to settle and cool, in order that the different neutral salts which it contains may be formed into crystals. When, at length, after repeated filtration, evaporation, and crystallization, the lixivium ceases to afford neutral salts, it is evaporated to dryness, and calcined. The salt thus obtained is carbonate of potash, intermixed with caustic potash. It always contains, however, some neutral salts, and a small portion of earthy matters, which may be separated by forming these salts and earthy matters into a strong solution with water, suffering that solution to settle and rest for some time, and then separating, by filtration, the sediment thus formed. The potash may now be used with confidence as pure, even in the nicest chemical experiments.

2. Soda is the residue remaining after the combustion of certain plants which grow on the sea shore. It is prepared at Alicant, in Languedoc, at Cherbourg, &c. by the combustion of various plants. At Alicant, the kali is employed; at Cherbourg, the algas and fucus, commonly known by the name of *warech*. The former of these plants contains a good deal more soda than the other; which indeed affords but very little. These plants are made very dry, and burnt over a trench.

At Cherbourg, when the combustion is considerably advanced, and the ashes are become very hot, they are violently stirred and kneaded together with large poles. By this motion, the substance, being hot enough to suffer a sort of semi-vitrification, is formed into solid, hard pieces, which are sold in commerce under the names of *stone-soda*, *salicore*, *salicote*, *la marie*, and *alun catin*. The names by which it is chiefly distinguished, and which denote its particular state, are those either of the country from which it comes, or the plant from which it is obtained. The soda of Alicant, called also *barilla*, is the best for the purposes of chemistry, and of all those arts in which fixed alkali is necessary.

The soda of Cherbourg, or *varech*, contains less alkali, and should not be used in chemistry; but in glass-works it is very advantageously employed; for it contains vitreous frit, which answers the purposes of the glass-maker, by promoting the vitrification of the other matters.

Common soda, chemically considered, is a compound of caustic soda, carbonate of soda, a small proportion of carbonate of potash, sulphate of potash and soda, muriate of soda, charcoal, iron in the state of *Prussian blue*, as has been observed by Henckel, and earth partly free, partly combined with fixed alkali, as in that of Cherbourg. To separate these substances, and obtain the carbonate of soda in a pure state, they are formed into a lixivium with cold distilled water: this lixivium is filtrated, in order to separate the earth, the iron, and the carbonaceous matters: lastly, it is evaporated in the same way as potash. This alkali is more easily purified than potash; for as it crystallizes sooner, it separates more readily from the caustic soda. It however carries with it, when it crystallizes, some of the neutral
salts

salts and the Prussian blue contained in the lixivium, which can be separated only by repeated solution, and successive crystallization.

3. There are fixed salts prepared in pharmacy, which have been strongly recommended by Takenius, and still bear his name. That chemist's process consists in putting the plant from which the salt is meant to be extracted into an iron pot, and heating that vessel till its bottom become red-hot: the plant is constantly stirred, and exhales a good deal of smoke: at length it kindles: it must now be covered up with a lid, which may suffer the smoke to escape, but extinguish the flame. By this means the plant is gradually consumed. When reduced to a sort of blackish cinder, it is lixivated with boiling water; and, on evaporating that lixivium to dryness, a yellowish or brown salt is obtained. That salt is often alkaline, but very impure; it contains a good deal of extractive matter from which it derives a colour, and which is mixed with all the neutral salts contained in the plant: it is in a sort of saponaceous state, which makes it very fit for being employed in medicine. But we must not imagine that it possesses all the virtues of the plant from which it was extracted; for the combustion necessarily alters the principles of the plant. It would be worth while to examine, by a chemical analysis, the several fixed salts prepared in Takenius's way, in order to discover what saline and extractive substances they contain; and to ascertain their virtues, and the quantities in which they are to be administered.

4. When the ashes of vegetables are deprived, by lixiviation, of all the saline matters which they contained, the residue is nothing but a pulverulent substance, more or less white or coloured, insipid, insoluble in water, and which has been hitherto thought to consist of earths.

The magnet attracts iron from this matter. This iron, as well as the manganese which has in like manner been for some time obtained from this residue of vegetables, must have existed ready formed in the plant. A number of naturalists are of opinion, that plants owe their colours to iron. M. Baumé, who, in his memoir on clays, mentions the earthy residue of vegetables, affirms, that it forms, with the sulphuric acid, alum and sulphate of lime a little different from that which owes its formation to pure calcareous earth. From this M. Baumé concludes, that the earth of vegetables consists of clay, and of another earth, nearly of a similar nature with calcareous earths; yet distinct from these, as it does not form quick-lime by the action of fire. He thinks that clay is formed in these substances by the collisions to which siliceous earth is exposed in them, and by the action of the acids with which it combines; and that clay, once formed, passes into the state of calcareous earth, in consequence of undergoing new elaborations in the tubes of vegetables.

We cannot help observing in this place, that the discoveries made in Sweden concerning the saline nature of the bones of animals,—which are to animals precisely what the fibrous texture of plants is to vegetable bodies,—seem to suggest, that the residue of vegetables is any thing rather than an earth. Perhaps an exact analysis, such as has not yet been made, might shew, that what has been taken for an earthy matter, is rather calcareous phosphate; at least we may suspect as much from the experiments of Margraf and M. Berthollet, who have obtained phosphorus from the grains of mustard, from the gluten, and from various other vegetable matters,—as well as from the experiments of M. Hassenfratz, who has extracted phosphoric acid from a great many marsh plants.

C H A P. XXII.

*Of Fermentations in general, and of the Spiritous
Fermentation in particular.*

AFTER considering vegetables in the state in which nature presents them to our observation, we may attend to the alterations and changes which they are liable to suffer from various circumstances. The alterations depending entirely on their nature, are always the effect of a phænomenon, called *fermentation*.

Fermentation is a spontaneous motion which arises in vegetables, and sometimes produces a total change of their properties. This motion is peculiar to the fluids of organic bodies; and no substances, but such as have been elaborated by the functions of vegetable or animal life, are susceptible of it. Chemists have not insisted sufficiently on this important truth, the application of which to the phænomena of organized substances is singularly useful in medicine.

There must several circumstances concur to promote this fermentation. Such as,

1. A certain degree of fluidity. Dry substances suffer no sort of fermentation.

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2. A more

2. A more moderate or a more intense heat. The degrees of heat vary with the sorts of fermentation; but cold stops the progress of every kind of fermentation.

Boerhaave, and after him other chemists, have distinguished fermentation into three kinds: Spiritous fermentation, which produces alcohol;—acetous fermentation, which affords vinegar or acetous acid;—and putrid fermentation, or putrefaction, which produces ammoniac. It is to be observed, that there are several fermenting motions, which cannot be referred to any of these three classes of fermentation.—Such, perhaps, are the fermentations of bread, of insipid mucilages, of colouring matters, &c. It has been thought, that fermentations always succeed each other in the order in which we have mentioned them: but there are bodies which become acid, without passing previously into the state of putrefaction; and, in other instances, putrefaction takes place without being preceded by the two other species of fermentation.—We may likewise observe, that the internal motion of maturation seems to constitute a species of primary fermentation, which calls forth the saccharine matter from a latent state. It is spiritous fermentation which affords alcohol. In order to become well acquainted with the phenomena of this species of fermentation, we may consider, 1. The conditions necessary to its production; 2. The phenomena which accompany it; 3. The several matters susceptible of it; 4. The cause of that internal motion; 5. The product which it forms.

It is well known to chemists, that all vegetable matters are not susceptible of spiritous fermentation, and that, in order to its taking place, several different circumstances must concur. These we are to consider as necessary conditions of spiritous fermentation,

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These conditions are,

1. A saccharine mucilage. No other matter is susceptible of spiritous fermentation.

2. A somewhat viscous fluidity. Too fluid a juice is no more susceptible of spiritous fermentation than one that is too thick.

3. The heat of—from ten to fifteen degrees in Reaumur's, or from fifty-five to sixty-five of Fahrenheit's.

4. A considerable mass of matter in which a rapid motion may be excited.

When these four conditions concur, spiritous fermentation then takes place; and certain phænomena invariably accompany it. The following is what I have been able to discover by observation concerning it.

1. A motion is raised in the liquor, which becomes more and more considerable, till, at length, the fermentation is fairly established through the whole mass.

2. The bulk of the mixture is considerably enlarged, in proportion as the motion is communicated through the whole mass.

3. The liquor loses its transparency, and is rendered turbid by opaque filaments appearing in motion through all parts of it.

4. There is a heat produced, amounting, according to the Abbé Rozier, to eighteen degrees of Reaumur, or seventy-two and one half, Fahrenheit.

5. The solid parts intermixed with the liquor are raised, and swim, in consequence of the disengagement of an elastic fluid.

6. There is a considerable quantity of carbonic acid gas disengaged. That gas forms a stratum above the liquor, in the vessel containing it, which may be easily distinguished from common air. It was on air thus produced, that Dr Priestley and the Duke de Chaulnes made
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their fine experiments. It extinguishes lights, and proves fatal to animals. It produces from lime-water a chalky precipitate: Caustic alkali it causes to crystallize perfectly. This acid is what renders the employment of those who are engaged in conducting fermentation so very dangerous to health.

7. The disengagement of this gas is attended with the formation of a great many bubbles, in the viscid liquor through which the carbonic acid must pass.

All these phænomena cease by degrees, as the liquor loses its sweet taste and saccharine nature, and becomes brisk, pungent, and capable of producing intoxication.

Men have been taught by necessity to prepare fermented liquors from many different vegetable substances. But experience has evinced, that none but saccharine matters are properly suitable for this purpose. The saccharine matters which are most commonly used in the preparation of fermented liquors, and which, therefore, best deserve to be examined here, are the following :

1. The juice of the grape, properly so called, produces wine, the best of all fermented liquors. In learning the art of cultivating vines, which is of great importance, it will be proper to examine, 1. The nature of the soil on which the vine grows ; a dry parched soil is known to be very favourable to this plant, as it does not thrive well in a strong fat soil :—2. The mode of managing and cultivating this vegetable ; it is to be pruned, and its branches bent down, to hinder the sap from flowing in its usual direction. Care must be taken to have the vine exposed to the sun, particularly to the reflection of his rays from the ground, &c. ; and it does not need to be supplied with any sort of manure, &c. :—3. The history of the vegetation of the vine, its exposure, its flowering, and the formation and ripening of the grape :—4. That
of

of the accidents to which it is liable from frost, rains, moisture: 5. The season of the vintage, which should be dry and hot. When this previous knowledge is acquired, the art of making wine is next to be considered; which consists in putting the grapes, after pulling them, into a vessel exposed to the heat of fifteen or sixteen degrees, and crushing, stirring, and turning them: fermentation is then produced, with all its usual phænomena. The juice of the grape, or must, should not be either too fluid or too thick; when too fluid, it may be thickened by boiling; when too thick, it must be diluted with water. When the wine is made, it is drawn off, and put into open casks. It there suffers insensibly a second fermentation, by which its principles are more intimately combined. It precipitates a fine lye, and a salt known by the name of *tartar*, which we have examined in a former chapter of this volume. To preserve wine, rags dipped in sulphur are burnt in the cask in which it is contained.

It is farther of importance, to be able to distinguish the different sorts of wine. France produces a great variety of excellent wines: those of Burgundy are the best for constant use: their principles are so perfectly combined, that none is predominant over the rest. The vines of the district of Orleans acquire nearly the same qualities with those of Burgundy, when time has mellowed their harshness, and combined the excess of spirit or alcohol which they contain. The red wines of Champagne are very excellent, and of a delicate flavour. The white wine of the same country which does not sparkle, is much better than that which sparkles; for the taste of the latter is tart and sourish; and besides, it owes its quality of sparkling to its containing carbonic acid, in consequence of having been bottled before the fermentation

ation had been finished. The wines of Languedoc and Guyenne are deep-coloured, and highly tonic and stomachic; especially when old. The wines of Anjou are strongly spiritous, and therefore soon intoxicate. As to foreign wines; those of Germany known by the name of Rhenish and Moselle wines, are white, very spiritous, and of a fresh poignant taste: They very soon intoxicate. Some Italian wines, such as those of Orvieto, Vicenza, and Lachryma Christi, &c. are well fermented, and not much inferior to good French wines. Those of Spain and Greece are, in general, sweet, crude, imperfectly fermented, and very unwholesome. We must, however, except those of Rota and Alicant, which are deservedly esteemed very useful stomachics and cordials.

2. Apples and pears afford cyder and perry: These are pretty good liquors; and M. D'Arcet has shown, that brandy may be obtained from them.

3. Cherries afford a pretty good wine, from which that species of brandy which the Germans call *kirchen-wasser* is extracted.

4. Apricots, peaches, and plums afford a species, not quite so good.

5. Sugar dissolved in water easily ferments. From this sort of wine, prepared from the juice of the cane, there is a spirit extracted, which is known by the names of *taffia*, *rum*, *guil dive*, &c.

6. Gramineous seeds, and of these especially barley, afford a sort of wine, called *beer*. The following are the processes of the art of brewing: The barley is steeped in water for thirty or forty hours, to soften it. It is then laid in a heap, and left in that state till it begin to germinate. It is then dried in a kiln; and the buds are separated by sifting: after which, it is coarsely ground into what is called *malt*. The malt is put into a vessel, called

called the *maſh-tun*, and hot water poured upon it to diſſolve the mucilage. This being drawn off, a ſecond quantity of hot water is poured upon the malt; and in like manner drawn off. This fluid is called *wort*, and boiled with hops; after which it is put to ferment, with yeast, into a veſſel called the *cooler*. When the fermentation begins to ſubſide, the beer is ſtirred, and drawn off into caſks. The ſecond fermentation throws up a ſcum called *yeaſt*, which is kept for fermenting future brewings. Germination calls forth, from a latent ſtate, a certain ſaccharine matter in barley, to which malt owes its property of affording a wine. A ſimilar liquor might be prepared from moſt other gramineous ſeeds.

All theſe facts concur to ſhow, that the ſaccharine matter is the only principle of vegetables ſuſceptible of ſpiritous fermentation, and that water is neceſſary to the production of this inteſtine motion. M. Lavoifier thinks that the fluid is decompoſed in the operation; its oxygenous part combines with the carbonaceous matter of the ſugar to form carbonic acid, which is diſengaged during the fermentation; while the hydrogen, the other principle of the water, uniting with the oil of the ſaccharine body, forms a very light and ſubtle combuſtible body, which contains much leſs carbonaceous matter than ſugar, and is much lighter, and much more inflammable, and conſtitutes what is called *alcohol*.

The product of all theſe fermented ſubſtances is a peculiar liquor, more or leſs coloured, of an aromatic ſmell, of an hot, poignant taſte; which, when taken in a ſmall quantity, re-invigorates the fibres, and, when drunk in too great abundance, intoxicates; and is known over all the world by the name of *Wine*.

The wine of grapes, for inſtance, is a compound conſiſting of a large proportion of water,—an aroma, peculiar to

to each different sort of wine,—alcohol,—an essential salt, called *tartar*,—and an extracto-refinous colouring matter, to which red wines owe their colour.

Before proceeding to explain the means by which these principles may be separated, it may be proper to give some account of the properties and uses of pure unaltered wine. Wine, by means of the water, alcohol, and essential acid salt which it contains, is capable of dissolving a great many bodies. It unites with extracts, resins, certain metals, &c. These are the properties which render wine fit for entering into medical preparations. These preparations are, 1. Emetic wine, which is prepared by macerating four ounces of *crocus metallorum* in two pounds of good white wine. The liquor is filtrated, or rather made use of in a turbid state, as a powerful stimulus in cases of apoplexy, palsy, &c.—2. Chalybeate wine, prepared by digesting an ounce of iron filings with two pounds of white wine. It is an excellent tonic and aperient.—3. Vegetable wines, which are prepared, A, either with red wine, in which astringent, aromatic plants are macerated; or, B, with Spanish wine. Both the wine of squills, and the liquid laudanum of Sydenham, are prepared with this species of wine. The latter of these is prepared by digesting, for a number of days, two ounces of opium cut into slices, an ounce of saffron, and a drachm of cinnamon and cloves, in a pound of Spanish wine. This mixture, taken in dozes of a few drops, is an excellent calming medicine, especially when there is reason to fear that opium might weaken the patient too much, or might hinder some useful evacuation.

The action of fire is commonly used to decompose wine, and separate its different principles. The liquor is distilled in an alembic of copper plated with tin, with a receiver adapted to it. As soon as the wine is heated to ebullition,

ebullition, it affords a white fluid, in a small degree opaque and milky, of a hot, poignant smell, and of a strong, sweet taste. This fluid is collected into the receiver, till such time as the vapours exhaling cease to be susceptible of inflammation by the contact of light. This product is what is called *Brandy*: It is a compound of water, alcohol, and a small quantity of oil, which obscures its transparency while it is distilled, and afterwards communicates to it a yellow colour. The colour of old brandy is not, however, owing solely to this oil which passes with it when it is distilled, but rather to the extractive matter of that part of the wood of the casks which it has dissolved. Alcohol, as we shall hereafter see, is extracted from brandy. Wine, after affording brandy, assumes a deeper colour, and a harsh, acid taste; it is also turbid, and may be observed to contain a great many saline crystals, which are nothing but tartar. This fluid is now, therefore, totally decomposed, and its original properties cannot be again communicated to it, by combining the spiritous product with the residue: The analysis is therefore complicated. The residue of wine from which brandy has been extracted, takes, by evaporation, the form and consistency of an extract. The colouring part may be separated by alcohol, which does not affect the tartar. This tincture is not liable to be precipitated by water. When evaporated to dryness, the residue readily takes fire, and is soluble in water. It is, in its nature, a true refinextractive, which the alcohol formed by the fermentation has taken up from the pellicles of the grapes. From this analysis it appears, that wine is actually composed of water, alcohol, tartar, a colouring matter, and an aroma, which is destroyed or modified by the action of fire. We already know the nature and properties of most of these substances: we have only alcohol to examine.

Before

Before we proceed to speak of this product, it will be proper to say something concerning a substance which is precipitated from wine while it ferments, and is called *lees*. It consists of the seeds and skins of grapes, impure tartar, and sulphate of potash or vitriolated tartar. It is obtained from brandy by distillation with naked fire. When treated in a retort, it affords an acid phlegm, and ammoniac; and its coaly residue contains carbonate and sulphate of potash. The lees of wine, incinerated in the open air, afford caustic potash, mixed with carbonate and sulphate of potash; a substance known in the Arts by the name of *cendres gravelées*. The particulars which we are to relate concerning the properties of alcohol, will complete what has been here said concerning the properties of lees.

C H A P. XXIII.

Of Alcohol, or the Product of Spiritous Fermentation.

BRANDY, obtained from wine by distillation with naked fire, is a compound of alcohol, water, and a small portion of oily matter. Distillation is employed to separate these substances, and give the alcohol pure. There are several processes for the distillation of alcohol. M. Baumé recommends the distillation of brandy on a balneum-mariæ, to be repeated as often as may be necessary for the extraction of all the spirit which it contains. He directs, to separate the first fourth part of the product of the first distillation, and, in like manner, the first half of the product of the succeeding distillations; then to mix all these first products together, and rectify them by a gentle heat. The first half of the liquor which passes in this rectification, is the purest and strongest alcohol: the rest is a weaker alcohol, but still better for ordinary purposes. Rouelle directs to extract, by distillation on a water-bath, one half of the brandy made use of: this first product is common alcohol. By rectifying it twice, and reducing it to about two thirds of its original quantity, the strongest alcohol is obtained: This,

This, according to Kunckel's process, is to be again distilled with water, to separate the oil by which it is altered. This alcohol, after the distillation with water, is rectified; and the operator is now certain of its being perfectly pure. The residue of distilled brandy is nothing but water impregnated with some particles of colouring matter, with a peculiar oil floating on its surface.

It may be naturally inferred, that this fluid being prepared by various processes, will be, at different times, of different degrees of strength. Attempts have long been made to discover some means of ascertaining its purity. It was at first thought, that the alcohol which burns readily and leaves no residue, must be very pure: But, it is now known, that the heat produced by its combustion is sufficiently strong for extracting all the phlegm which it may contain. Powder has been proposed as a test of its purity. Alcohol that does not kindle gun-powder, when it is itself kindled and applied to it in a spoon, is considered as bad; but, if it does kindle the powder, it is thought very good. This proof, however, is fallacious; for when any considerable quantity, even of the best alcohol, is poured on a little powder, the water which it affords as it burns, moistens the powder so as to hinder it from kindling; whereas, again, the same powder may be kindled, by burning at its surface a very small quantity even of phlegmatic alcohol. This method of proof is, therefore, not more certain than the former. Boerhaave gives a very good process for ascertaining the purity of alcohol. It consists in casting dry powdered potash into the alcohol under examination. The potash enters into union with the superabundant water of the alcohol, and forms with it a more ponderous and a higher-coloured fluid, which does not mix with the alcohol, but
sinks

sinks under it. Lastly, M. Baumé, proceeding upon this principle, that the purer alcohol is, so much the more does its levity exceed that of water, has contrived an areometer, by means of which the degree of the purity of this, or of any other spiritous liquor, may be accurately ascertained. When that instrument is immersed in alcohol, the purer the fluid is, so much the deeper does it sink. He has ascertained by a number of accurate experiments, that the purest and most highly rectified alcohol gives thirty-nine degrees of his areometer, equal to ten of Reaumur's thermometer. The method of constructing this instrument, with the results which alcohol afforded when mixed with various quantities of water, may be seen in his *Elements of Pharmacy*, and may be applied to determine the strength of spirit of wine by the hydrometer.

Pure alcohol, obtained by the process above described, is a transparent fluid, very moveable, and very light, of which six drachms and forty-eight grains may be contained in a bottle capable of holding an ounce of distilled water. Its smell is poignant and agreeable; its taste hot and pungent. It is exceedingly volatile. When exposed even to a slight degree of heat in close vessels, it ascends, and passes unaltered into the receiver. By this means it is concentrated; and any little water which it might contain, is separated from it. On this account the first portions are the sweetest, the purest, and the most volatile. It was formerly thought, that there was a good deal of air disengaged from alcohol when distilled; but what was thought to be air, is now known to be the spiritous part of the fluid, which escapes from the water, and is volatilized in the state of gas.

When alcohol is heated, in contact with air, it soon kindles, and burns with a light flame, the middle of which

is white, and the edges blue : if it has been well dephlegmated, it burns in this manner without leaving any residue. Various chemists have attempted to discover what products alcohol afforded when burnt. They have ascertained, that its flame is not accompanied with any foot or smoke, and that the products volatilized prove to be nothing but pure water, insipid, inodorous, and perfectly in the same state with distilled water. This phænomenon induced Boerhaave to think that the flame was owing to the water ; and his opinion receives confirmation from what is at present known concerning the hydrogenous gas obtained from the decomposition of water,—and concerning the composition of water by the combustion of the same gas with vital air. M. Lavoisier, on burning alcohol in a chimney, which was so constructed and disposed as to collect the vapours, discovered, that the quantity of water obtained, is greater than the quantity of alcohol burnt : A fact from which it appears that alcohol contains a great deal of hydrogenous gas. On the other hand, M. Berthollet has remarked, that when a mixture of alcohol and water is burnt, the fluid residue precipitates lime water. This experiment shews, that alcohol contains a little carbonaceous matter, which, by its combustion, or combination with oxigene, forms carbonic acid. Chemists have entertained different opinions concerning its nature. Stahl, Boerhaave, and several others, have considered this fluid as a compound of a very subtle oil, with an attenuated acid, and water. According to this opinion, therefore, it is a sort of acid soap. Others, at the head of whom Cartheuser and Macquer deserve to be named, think alcohol to consist of phlogiston and water. The true nature of this liquor is still unknown.

Alcohol, when exposed to the air, is evaporated at the temperature of ten degrees above the freezing point, and
leaves

leaves no residue, except a little water, when it has not been sufficiently dephlegmated. The hotter the atmosphere, so much the more rapid is this evaporation. It is attended with a greater or a less degree of cold, according to its rapidity. At 68 degrees of heat above 0 in Reaumur's thermometer, 185° Fahrenheit, alcohol takes the form of an elastic fluid.

Alcohol combines with water in any proportion, and is perfectly soluble in it. This solution is attended with heat, and forms different sorts of brandy, the strength of which is in proportion to the quantity of the alcohol. So strong is the affinity of combination between these two fluids, that water is capable of separating from alcohol many of the other bodies which may be united with it; and again, alcohol decomposes most saline solutions, and precipitates the salts. On account of its possessing this property, Boulduc has proposed the use of alcohol to precipitate the salts contained in mineral waters, and obtain them without alteration.

Alcohol does not act on pure earths. We know not whether it be liable to be altered by barytes or magnesia. Lime appears to be capable of producing some change upon it; for when alcohol is distilled on that salino-terreous substance, the fluid acquires a peculiar smell. But this phenomenon has not been sufficiently attended to.

The fixed alkalis actually decompose alcohol, as is proved by the preparation known in pharmacy by the name of *acid tincture of tartar*. In preparing this medicine, a quantity of potash is melted in a crucible, and either pulverized hot, or put into a matras: highly dephlegmated alcohol is poured, to three or four fingers depth, upon the salt: the matras is closed with another of a smaller size: these are luted together, and the whole is digested on a sand-bath, till the alcohol acquire a reddish colour. Ei-

ther more or less alkali remains at the bottom of the vessel. By distilling the acrid tincture of tartar, we obtain an alcohol of a sweet smell, but little altered; and there remains in the retort a matter resembling a saponaceous extract, which, when distilled by naked fire, affords alcohol, ammoniac, and a light empyreumatic oil. After this operation, a little charcoal remains, which is found to contain the potash. From this experiment it would appear that alcohol contains an oil which the fixed alkali seizes, and forms with it a real soap that is found in the portion of the alcohol which has not suffered decomposition. The *lilium of Paracelsus* differs from the acrid tincture of tartar, only in that the fixed alkali employed in the preparation of it, appears to have been reduced to a caustic state by the metallic oxides with which it was heated. The *martial, jovial, and cupreous* reguli of antimony, of each four ounces, are fused together, reduced to powder, and detonized with eighteen ounces of nitre, and as much tartar: they are urged with fire till they melt; the mixture is then pulverized, put into a matrafs, and highly dephlegmated alcohol poured upon it, to the depth of three or four fingers breadth. This mixture, digested on a sand-bath, assumes a beautiful red colour, deeper than that of the acrid tincture of tartar, and exhibits all the same phenomena. That tincture may be rendered entirely similar to the *lilium of Paracelsus*, by digesting alcohol on caustic fixed alkali, instead of using fixed salt of tartar, which is not entirely deprived of its carbonic acid by the action of fire, unless it be kept for a long time red-hot. M. Berthollet is convinced that these tinctures are nothing but solutions of caustic potash in alcohol, and that they afford an happy mode of obtaining that alkali very pure, as they leave it separate by evaporation. Alcohol acts in the same way on pure soda. The acrid tincture of tartar,
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and the lilium, are very good tonics, and powerful discutives. They are employed in all cases in which the natural strength of the patient is not sufficient to support the progress of his disease to a crisis, as in the malignant fever, small-pox of a bad kind, &c.

The action of caustic ammoniac on alcohol has not yet been examined.

All the acids exhibit with alcohol phænomena highly worthy of observation. When a quantity of strongly concentrated sulphuric acid is poured on an equal quantity of rectified alcohol, a remarkable heat and hissing take place. The two substances become coloured; and there is, at the same time, exhaled from them a sweet smell, resembling that of lemons, or the apple called the *golden rennet*. If the retort in which this mixture is usually made, be placed on a hot sand-bath, with two large balloons adapted to it, the first being immersed in a vessel full of cold water, the products obtained are,

1. A sweet-smelling alcohol.
2. A liquor called æther, of a very sweet smell, extremely volatile, and whose presence is indicated by the ebullition of the liquor contained in the retort, and by the large striæ with which the sides of the vessel are furrowed. Care must be taken to cool the receiver with wet cloths.
3. After the æther, follows sulphureous acid, the white colour and smell of which shew that it is time to change the receiver, in order to obtain the æther separate.
4. There is at the same time volatilized a light yellowish oil, which is called *sweet oil of wine*. The fire must be greatly moderated after the æther has passed; because the matter now remaining in the retort is black, and thick, and swells considerably.
5. When the sweet oil is all distilled, there likewise passes sulphureous acid, which becomes gradually thicker, till at last it is nothing but black and

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dirty

dirty sulphuric acid. 6. Continuing this operation by a moderate fire, the residue is at length so much dried as to take the form and consistency of a bitumen. This bitumen exposed to a very strong fire, affords an acid liquor, and a dry, yellowish substance like sulphur. M. Baumé, who has made a long train of experiments on sulphuric æther, has examined this residue with a great deal of care: He has found in it sulphate of iron, Prussian blue, a saline substance, and a peculiar earth, the nature of which he has not determined. He even asserts, that the yellow sublimate which it affords is nothing but sulphur; and that it remains white and pulverulent, without being kindled on the coals. To these particulars we shall add, that a new quantity of æther may be obtained from the residue from which æther has been once obtained, by adding to it, according to M. Cadet's process, one third part of alcohol dephlegmated by potash, and distilling that mixture. These distillations may be several times repeated; so that from a mixture of six pounds of sulphuric acid with alcohol, by adding to it successively fifteen pounds of the latter of these fluids, more than ten pounds of good æther may be obtained.

The operation which we have been describing, is, by the phænomena which it presents, one of the most singular, and at the same time one of the most important, in all chemistry; as it affords some information concerning the principles of which alcohol is composed. There are two opinions concerning the formation of æther; of which it is proper for us to give some account. Macquer, who, as has been mentioned, thinks alcohol a compound of water with phlogiston, is of opinion, that in the formation of æther, the sulphuric acid seizing the water of the alcohol, brings it nearer in nature

to oils. Thus, according to this opinion, there passes, at the first, alcohol a little altered;—then a fluid of a middle character between alcohol and oil, which is æther;—and, lastly, a genuine oil: because the stronger the heat employed to obtain the æther, with the greater energy does the sulphuric acid act on the principles of the alcohol. Bucquet, struck with a strong objection which he made to this theory, namely, its being hard to conceive how the sulphuric acid, impregnated as it must be, from the time when it begins to act upon the alcohol, with a certain quantity of water, abstracted from that fluid, can, notwithstanding this dilution, react with such force on another part of the same alcohol, as to reduce it into an oily state,—has advanced another opinion concerning the production of æther. He considered alcohol as a fluid compounded of oil, an acid, and water.: He thought that, when the sulphuric acid was mixed with alcohol, the result of the mixture was a sort of bituminous fluid, which afforded, by heat, the same principles with all the other bitumens,—that is to say, a light oil, very odorous, and highly combustible, a sort of naphtha which was æther, and then an oil, less volatile, but higher coloured than the former, which is the sweet oil of wine. We will, in fact, see, in examining the properties of æther, that this fluid has all the characteristics of a very subtle oil, such as naphtha. This theory does not afford a sufficiently clear explanation of what passes in the preparation of æther. It appears, that the alcohol deprives the sulphuric acid of its oxigene;—that a part of the hydrogenous principle contained in the alcohol, combines with this oxigene to form water;—and that the alcohol, after losing that part of its hydrogen, forms æther. But we are not acquainted with all that passes in this operation.

Æther, obtained by the process here described, is not very pure : It is combined with alcohol and sulphureous acid. To rectify it, it is distilled in a retort, on a sand-bath, with fixed alkali. That salt combines with the sulphureous acid, and the æther then passes very pure by the most moderate heat. By separating the first half of this product, the æther is obtained in the purest and most highly rectified state.

Æther is a fluid lighter than alcohol, of a strong sweet smell, susceptible of great expansion, and of a hot and pungent taste. It is so volatile, that when stirred or shaken, it is dissipated in an instant. When evaporating, it produces a cold sufficient to freeze water, as M. Baumé has shewn by his beautiful experiments. It is reduced into a sort of æthereal gas, which burns with rapidity. Air in which æther is contained, in a state of solution, will pass through water without losing its odour or inflammability. Æther is very easily kindled, by being heated in the open air, or brought into contact with a burning body ; the electric spark likewise kindles it. It displays a very luminous white flame, and leaves a black, and seemingly carbonaceous mark on the surfaces of bodies exposed to its flame. M. Lavoisier has proved, that carbonic acid is formed during the combustion of this liquor ; and M. Scheele, that the residue of æther burnt on a little water contains sulphuric acid.

Æther, according to the Count de Lauraguais, is dissolved in ten parts of water. The phænomena which æther is capable of exhibiting with saline substances, have not yet been particularly examined. We know only how it reacts on acids. Lime and the fixed alkalis do not appear capable of producing any alteration upon it. Caustic ammoniac mixes with it in all proportions, forming with it a matter, the mixed smell of which
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might produce very happy effects in spasmodic complaints. The sulphuric acid becomes considerably hot with æther, and is capable of converting a great part of it into sweet oil of wine, by distillation. The fuming nitrous acid excites a considerable effervescence in æther; and æther appears to become higher-coloured, and more oily, and to acquire greater consistency in consequence of the admixture of this acid. When mixed with the muriatic solution of gold, æther retains a part of the metal, acting, it would appear, in the same way as volatile oils, which also retain a part of the oxide of gold. It dissolves volatile oils and resins, like alcohol: And physicians often make use of æthereal tinctures.

Æther is thought a powerful tonic, and a very good antispasmodic medicine. It is administered in hysteric complaints, and in spasmodic colics. It acts very speedily in promoting digestion, when it is retarded by a weakness of the stomach. It must, however, be administered with prudence, for it is known to be dangerous when taken in too great quantities. It is also applied externally, with very happy effects, to remove the headach, and cure burnings, &c. Hoffman, who paid much attention to the combinations of alcohol with the sulphuric acid, made use of a medicine consisting of sweet oil of wine dissolved in alcohol, which he called his anodyne mineral liquor. The Faculty of Medicine of Paris have added æther to that liquor, and have, in their Dispensary, directed it to be prepared by mixing two ounces of alcohol, which passes before the æther, two ounces of æther, and twelve drops of sweet oil of wine. This medicine is employed in the same way as æther, but is greatly inferior in its effects.

The nitric acid acts upon all alcohol with great rapidity. Navier of Chalons is the first who has given an
easy

easy and not very expensive process for the preparation of nitric æther. His process is as follows:—Into a very strong bottle of the manufactory of Séves, pour twelve ounces of very pure and highly rectified alcohol, and immerse it in cold water, or rather in pounded ice: at several different times, stirring the mixture each time, add eight ounces of concentrated nitric acid: then close up the bottle with a good cork, covered with leather. Set this mixture aside, in some private place, to avoid accidents from the bursting of the bottle,—which sometimes happens. In a few hours, bubbles arise from the bottom of the bottle, are collected in drops on the surface of the liquor, and form, by degrees, a stratum of genuine æther. This phænomenon continues to go on for four, or from four to six days. As soon as the motion of the liquor appears to have ceased, the cork must be pierced with a pin, in order to the emission of a certain quantity of gas, which would otherwise force its way out by uncorking the bottle, and carry with it all the æther. When this gas is discharged, the bottle may be unstopped, the liquor contained in it poured into a funnel, stopping the under end of the funnel with the finger, and the supernatant æther separated from the residue, and received into a glass phial.

Mr Woulfe has given a different process for the preparation of nitrous æther. He uses very large vessels, which afford room for the reception of the air that is disengaged. Taking a balloon of clear glass, sufficiently capacious to hold eight or ten pints, and terminating in a neck seven or eight feet long, he places it on a tripod, high enough to receive under it a chafing-dish. The neck of the matrass is to be adjusted to a tubulated capital, with a glass tube seven or eight feet long, adapted to its beak. The lower extremity of the tube is received
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into a balloon with two necks, the lower part of which is drawn out into a tube, and inserted into a bottle. The other neck of this balloon joins the bottles composing Woulfe's apparatus, which we have already repeatedly described. When all these vessels are sufficiently luted together, a pound of rectified alcohol, and as much fuming nitrous acid, is to be poured into the matrafs, through the hole perforated in the capital: that hole must then be stopped with a crystal stopper, wrapped in a piece of leather. The mixture becomes immediately exceedingly hot: vapours are disengaged, and pass rapidly along the neck of the balloon; and this vessel being exposed to a heat sufficient to boil the liquor which it contains, a quantity of nitric æther passes into the balloon employed as a receiver. This process, though very ingenious, is attended with several inconvenient circumstances: It takes a long time to set up the apparatus, which is both very expensive, and very troublesome: and it still exposes the operator to danger; for notwithstanding the room afforded in the vessels for the reception of the vapours, yet, so rapidly are they disengaged, that the vessels happen to be pretty often burst, with considerable noise.

M. Bagues, in the year 1773, published another process for preparing nitric æther. He directs to mix, in a glass retort, capable of containing eight pints, a pound of alcohol with a pound of nitric acid, weakened so as to exhibit only twenty-four degrees of M. Baumé's hydrometer;—to adapt to the retort a balloon of the capacity of twelve pints;—to afford a passage to the air, by inserting, at the juncture of the lute, the barrels of two quills;—and to distil the mixture by a very moderate heat, taking care that the retort sink but a little way in the sand-bath. By this means he obtained six ounces of
nitric

nitric æther, of sufficient purity. It appears, from what the Abbé Rozier has said, that Mitouard followed, since the year 1770, a process nearly similar to that communicated to the public by M. Bogues. That chemist subjected four ounces of fuming spirit of nitre, with twelve ounces of alcohol, to distillation in a retort: He placed the retort gently on the sand-bath; and by this means, which appeared to him simpler than any other that had been recommended, he obtained a quantity of nitric æther, of the same kind with M. Navier's. Lastly, M. de la Planche, apothecary at Paris, has contrived two different ways of preparing nitric æther, each of which has its conveniences. The first consists in putting nitre into a tubulated stone retort, with a large balloon, and pouring in by the aperture, first, concentrated sulphuric acid, and afterwards alcohol. The sulphuric acid disengages spirit of nitre, which reacts upon the alcohol, and forms, almost instantaneously, nitric æther. As æther prepared in this way might be suspected to be partly sulphuric, he afterwards adopted, in preference to this method, a new process; which is, indeed, exceedingly ingenious: To a tubulated glass retort, into which he had put six pounds of dry nitre, he joined an adapter, and a receiver, communicating by a curved tube with an empty bottle. The bottle, again, by means of a syphon, communicated with another bottle, containing three pounds of the best alcohol. Then, after properly luting the whole of this apparatus, and placing the retort on a cinder bath, he poured upon the nitre, through the aperture in the retort, three pounds of concentrated sulphuric acid,—shut up the retort with a crystal stopper,—urged it with fire, till it was raised to ebullition,—and maintained it in that state, till it ceased to emit vapours. On this occasion, the sulphuric acid disengages the acid of nitre,

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one part of which passes into the receiver, and the rest into the second flask. At the end of the operation, the receiver contains fuming nitrous acid, the retort sulphate of potash, and the second bottle an æthereal liquor. This æthereal liquor is next distilled in a retort, with a single balloon, and only two thirds of the product taken up. This product is distilled with a fifth part of fuming nitrous acid, gradually poured upon it, through a long glass funnel: of this likewise no more than two thirds are distilled off. Lastly, this second product is rectified on potash; four ounces are, at the first, taken off; and then the remaining three fourths. The four ounces are very pure nitric æther; and the remaining three fourths a nitrous, anodyne mineral liquor. The residues of these two rectifications are dulcified spirit of nitre.

The nitric æther obtained by these processes, is a yellowish fluid, equally volatile and susceptible of evaporation with sulphuric æther. Its smell is nearly the same with that of sulphuric æther, but rather stronger, and not so pleasant. Its taste is hot, and more disagreeable than that of sulphuric æther. It contains a small quantity of superabundant acid. It causes the corks to start from the phials in which it is inclosed; a large quantity of gas being constantly disengaged from it. It burns with a brighter flame, and a thicker smoke than sulphuric æther, and does not leave just so large a proportion of carbonaceous residue. Lastly, like sulphuric æther, it takes up gold from a solution of that metal, and becomes charged with a certain quantity of it.

The residue of nitric æther is of a lemon-yellow colour; its smell is acid and aromatic; its taste pungent, like that of distilled vinegar. According to M. Baumé, it affords, by distillation, a clear liquor, the smell of which is not so sweet as that of nitric æther, and its taste an agreeable

greeable acid. It reddens syrup of violets, combines with water in any proportion, and effervesces with carbonate of potash. There remains in the retort, after this liquor is distilled off, an amber-yellow matter, friable, and similar in its appearance to real amber, which attracts moisture from the atmosphere, becomes pitchy while it continues exposed to it, and dissolves in water without rendering it mucilaginous. This substance, which M. Baumé calls *gummi-saponaceous*, affords, in the retort, a few drops of an acidulated liquor, which is very clear, of an oily consistency, and a light empyreumatic smell. After the distillation, there remains a spongy coal, which is brilliant, insipid, and very obstinately fixed in the fire. Bucquet says, that the liquor which remains after the formation of nitric æther, takes, by evaporation, a mucilaginous consistency; and that, in a longer or a shorter space of time, there are saline crystals formed in it, which bear a considerable resemblance to hairy caterpillars, and are called *crystals of Hiærne*, from the name of the chemist who gave the first description of them.— This residue has been discovered to be oxalic acid; and the radical principle of that acid appears therefore to be contained in alcohol.

The muriatic acid does not act in any perceptible manner on alcohol. This acid is only dulcified by simple mixture with this liquor, as are also the two others, when mixed in a small proportion with alcohol. M. Baumé, in his dissertation on æther, mentions his having obtained a little muriatic æther, by bringing vapours of muriatic acid into contact with vapours of alcohol.— Ludolf and Pott employed sublimated muriate of antimony with this view. Baron Bornes directs to dissolve oxide of zinc in muriatic acid, and to distil that salt, after concentrating it by evaporation in close vessels with
alcohol.

alcohol. This is an easy enough way of obtaining muriatic æther. But nobody has paid so much attention to this object as the Marquis of Courtanvaux. His process is, to pour into a glass retort a pint of alcohol, with two pounds and a half of muriate of tin, or *fuming liquor of Libavius*. A very strong heat is thus excited; and there arises a white suffocating vapour, which disappears when the mixture is stirred. An agreeable smell then exhales from it, and the liquor takes a lemon colour. Place the retort on a hot sand-bath: join to it with luting two balloons; and let the most distant of the two be immersed in cold water. The first product which passes is dephlegmated alcohol; after it the æther ascends. The ascent of the æther may be distinguished by its sweet smell, and the stricæ which it forms on the sides of the retort. When the smell changes, and becomes strong and suffocating, the receiver must be changed, but the distillation still carried on. The product now obtained, is first a clear acid liquor, with some drops of mild oil swimming on its surface; next, a yellow matter, of the consistency of butter, which is a true muriate of tin; and, lastly, a brown, ponderous liquor, which exhales a considerable quantity of white vapours.—There remains in the retort a grey pulverulent matter, an oxide of tin. The æthereal product must now be poured into a retort, upon a quantity of potash: The phænomena which follow are, a lively effervescence, and a copious precipitation, both owing to the tin which the acid has carried up with it, when distilled. By adding a little water, and distilling the contents of the retort by a moderate heat, a product is obtained, equal to about one half of the former æthereal product. All the liquors which pass after the muriatic æther, are strongly impregnated with oxide of tin: They attract moisture from the atmosphere, and combine with

with water, without affording any precipitate. It was not known to what cause the rapidity with which the muriatic acid contained in the fuming liquor acts upon alcohol, while the pure acid does not act upon it at all, should be ascribed; but from a discovery of Scheele's, it appears that it is owing to the acid being then in the state of oxygenated muriatic acid, in consequence of which the excess of oxigene which it contains, converts the alcohol into æther. This theory was first advanced by myself, in the year 1781; and has been since confirmed by the experiments of Messrs Berthollet and Pelletier.

M. de la Planche, apothecary, has proposed the preparing of muriatic æther, by pouring into a tubulated retort sulphuric acid and alcohol upon decrepitated muriate of soda. The muriatic acid gas, disengaged by the sulphuric acid, upon entering the receiver, comes into contact with the alcohol in a vaporous state, and combines with it. The result of the combination is, an æthereal acid, which, by rectification on fixed potash, becomes pure æther. It appears, that in this process, the muriatic acid deprives the sulphuric acid of a part of its oxigene.

Muriatic æther is highly transparent and volatile. It has nearly the same smell with sulphuric æther. It burns in the same way, and affords a similar smoke. It differs from it, however, in two properties: Muriatic æther exhales, as it burns, an odour equally pungent and lively with that of the sulphureous acid; and it has a stiptic taste like alum. These two phænomena indicate this æther to be of a different nature, and possibly less perfect than the two preceding sorts of æther. No doubt, when its properties are more minutely examined, it may be found distinguished by other more remarkable peculiarities.

After

After this account of the manner in which these three mineral acids act upon alcohol, we are to proceed with the history of this fluid. Little attention has been paid to the action of the other acids on alcohol. We know only, that it combines readily with the boracic acid; that in consequence of combination with that acid, it burns with a green flame; and that alcohol absorbs a quantity of carbonic acid gas, more than equal to its own bulk. As to the neutral salts, Macquer has ascertained, that this spirit dissolves sulphuric neutral salts, but with great difficulty; that nitric and muriatic salts combine with it much more readily; and that the less intimately the acid is combined with the other principle of these substances, the more of them does the spirit usually dissolve. Alcohol, boiled on sulphate of potash and soda, dissolved none of either of these neutral salts. Neither does carbonate of potash, or of soda, unite with it: Most ammoniacal salts combine with it. Deliquescent, earthy salts, such as calcareous and magnesian nitrate and muriate, dissolve very readily in it. Some metallic salts are also very soluble in alcohol; such as, sulphate of iron in mother-water, nitrate of copper, muriate of iron and of copper, oxygenated muriate of mercury, or corrosive sublimate. All cupreous salts cause alcohol to burn with a beautiful green flame. M. de Morveau has since given a fuller table of the different degrees in which salts are soluble by alcohol, which is inserted in the *Journal de Physique*.

Alcohol does not dissolve sulphur, either in masses or in a powder; but these two bodies unite, if brought into contact when they are both in a vaporous state, as has been discovered by the Count de Lauraguais. His process consists in putting sulphur in powder into a glass cucurbite, putting into the same vessel, above the flowers of sulphur, a bottle filled with alcohol, and heating

the cucurbite on a sand-bath, with a capital and a receiver adapted to it. Both the sulphur and the alcohol are volatilized at the same time: They combine, and pass into the receiver, in a fluid which is somewhat turbid, and diffuses a foetid smell. It contains about a grain of sulphur to the drachm of alcohol. I have discovered, that the same combination may be produced by distilling sulphureous waters, such as the water of Enghien, with alcohol.

Ardent spirit, or alcohol, does not act at all, on either metallic matters, or their oxides. It dissolves amber in part: It produces no effects on black carbonaceous bitumens. It is observed, that it combines best with amber, after being distilled on fixed alkali; and that fixed alkali, mixed with this bituminous substance, renders it much more soluble, by reducing it, no doubt, to a saponaceous state.

There are few vegetable matters on which alcohol does not act with more or less energy. It destroys the colouring part; and frequently the whole substance of extracts, when they are of an extracto-resinous, or a resino-extractive nature: the saccharine and saponaceous extracts combine with this fluid. Margraf has obtained, by alcohol, a saccharine essential salt from red beet, skirret, parsnip, &c. But the matters with which it combines the easiest, are volatile oils, the aroma, camphor, balsams and resins. Alcohol impregnated with the aroma of plants, is improperly called *distilled spiritous waters*. To obtain these fluids, distil alcohol on a balneum-mariæ with odorous plants. The liquid takes up the odorous principle, and is volatilized with it, carrying off, at the same time, a certain quantity of volatile oil, which causes it to become white with distilled water. But the oleaginous principle may be separated, by rectifying it on a
water-

water-bath by a very moderate heat; and care must be taken, that no more than three-fourths of the alcohol employed be drawn off, lest some other substance, besides the aroma, should be volatilized with it. The smell of these distilled spiritous waters becomes more and more agreeable as they grow older; and it appears, that the odorous principle combines more intimately with the alcohol, the longer they are in union.

So great is the affinity between the aroma and alcohol; that alcohol detaches it from volatile oils and water.—When alcohol is distilled on volatile oils, and on water impregnated with the odorous principle of a plant, the alcohol seizes the odorous principle, leaving the oil and the water destitute of smell. It is observed, that alcohol dissolves thick and ponderous volatile oils, more readily than such as are very light and fluid. Water separates the principles of this compound: It precipitates the oil in the form of opaque, white globules; but the aroma still remains combined with the alcohol. This liquid easily dissolves camphor in a cold state; but it dissolves still a greater quantity of it when assisted by the action of heat. This solution, in the proportion of two drachms of camphor to the ounce of alcohol, with water added, drop by drop, affords a crystalline vegetative figure, which has been observed by M. Romieu: It is a perpendicular filament, with needles rising upon it; under an angle of sixty degrees. This experiment succeeds but seldom; as it is so very difficult to employ precisely the proper quantity of water, the proper degree of cooling, &c.

Compounds of oily or resinous juices with alcohol, in which the alcohol is so strongly charged with the oleaginous or resinous juice as to be coloured by it, and to afford a copious precipitate in water, are called *tinctures*;

elixirs, balsams, quintessences, &c. Like distilled spiritous waters, these are either simple, as when there is only one matter dissolved in them, or compound, when they contain several matters together. These medicines are generally prepared by exposing the juice in powder, or the plant, the volatile oil or resin of which is to be dissolved, to the action of alcohol, assisted by stirring, and by the gentle heat of the sun or a sand-bath. To extract the resins, or any other vegetable matters from several different plants at once, care must be taken, first to digest the matter which is the least liable to be affected by the action of the alcohol, and then to expose to it, successively, the other substances over which it has greater power. When the menstruum is charged with as much of these matters as it can receive, it is strained off. Sometimes a compound tincture is prepared at once, by mixing together several simple tinctures. In this manner, the *elixir proprietatis* is prepared, by mixing the tinctures of myrrh, saffron, and aloes. Resins and balsams may be separated from alcohol by pouring water upon the tinctures, or distilling them; but in either of these cases, the alcohol retains the odorate principle. Water is not capable of decomposing tinctures formed with extracto-resinous, or resino-extractive matters, such as those of rhubarb, saffron, opium, gum-ammoniac, &c.; for these matters are equally soluble in both the menstrua.

Alcohol and brandy are very generally used, and applied to a great variety of purposes. The last of these liquors is drunk as a cordial, to revive the exhausted spirits; but in excess it is dangerous, for it dries up the fibres, and occasions shaking, palsy, and dropsy. Alcohol, either pure or mixed with camphor, is used to stop, by external application, the progress of gangrenes.

Distilled spiritous waters are administered in medicine, as tonics, cordials, antispasmodics, stomachics, &c. They are

are given either diluted in water, or sweetened with syrups.

Of these waters with sugar, there are certain drinks prepared, which are known under the name of *ratasias*, or *liqueurs*. These drinks, when properly prepared, and taken in small quantities, may be of service; but they commonly agree with very few people, and are hurtful to very many. These liquors, taken in excess, are extremely dangerous to the human constitution. Instead of invigorating with new strength, and fortifying the tone of the stomach, as they are commonly thought to do, they produce, most frequently, a quite contrary effect. Those which, drunk but seldom, and with great moderation, are the least injurious, are prepared cold, with one part of alcohol distilled upon the aromatic substance which is to afford the flavour, two parts of water, and one of the finest sugar.

Tinctures have nearly the same virtues with distilled spiritous waters, but they act with much more energy; and therefore, they are to be used in much smaller quantities, and given in wine, in potions, and even in aqueous liquors. The precipitate which they yield in the last of these, is equally suspended through the mixture, and, besides, the odorous part remains dissolved in the alcohol.

Lastly, alcohol, combined with the copal resin, with oil of aspic, or the greater lavender, or with oil of turpentine, forms *varnishes*, which are called *drying*; because, when a coat of this compound is laid on any body to varnish it, the alcohol is soon volatilized, and leaves on the varnished body a transparent, resinous plating. The volatile oils, which are mixed with this composition, hinder the varnish from drying too hastily, and, by communicating to it somewhat of an unctuous nature, render it less brittle than it would otherwise be.

C H A P. XXIV.

Of Acetous Fermentation, and of the Acetous and the Acetic Acids.

MANY vegetable substances are susceptible of acetous fermentation. Of this kind are gums, and amylaceous fæcula dissolved in boiling water; but spiritous and fermented liquors possess this property in the most eminent degree. Acid fermentation may be excited in any of these fluids, by exposing them to the action of heat and air at the same time, so as to convert them into what is called *vinegar*. This liquor is chiefly prepared from the wine of grapes; but very good vinegar might be also prepared from cyder, perry, * &c.

There are three conditions necessary to vinous fermentation: 1. A heat of twenty or twenty-five degrees of Reaumur's thermometer, or from 75° to 90° of Fahrenheit's: 2. A substance at once viscous and acid, such as mucilage and tartar: 3. The contact of air. The change which wines undergo, when converted into vinegar,

* Vinegar is made in Britain from wort, the infusion of malt;

gar, can be attributed to nothing but an intestine motion excited in those bodies, in consequence of their containing a certain quantity of mucilaginous matter, unaltered, and still susceptible of another fermentation. The presence of an acid matter, such as tartar, is requisite to produce acid fermentation. Lastly, the contact of air is indispensibly necessary; and it appears,—it has indeed been proved by the Abbé Rozier, that the liquor absorbs a portion of air while it ferments.

All kinds of wine are equally good for making vinegar. The worst are preferred, because they are the cheapest. But the experiments of Beccher and Cartheuser shew, that generous wines, not destitute of spirit, afford generally the best vinegar.

Boerhaave, in his *Elements of Chemistry*, has given a very good process for the preparation of vinegar. Take two casks: at some distance from the bottoms of these casks, form within each of them a false bottom of wicker-work: upon that false bottom spread grape-stalks and vine-branches; pour upon these wine, till one of the casks be entirely full, and the other half full. The fermentation will first begin in the latter: when it is fairly commenced, fill up that cask with wine from the other: by this means the fermentation is moderated in the full cask, and begins in the other. After it has continued for a due length of time, fill up the latter cask again from the cask in which the fermentation first began:—thus the fermentation is again excited in the former, and becomes languid in the other. The two casks are to be thus successively filled up and emptied till such time as the vinegar be entirely formed; which is not, usually, in less than fifteen days.

In observing the phenomena of this fermentation, we perceive a good deal of boiling and hissing:—The liquor

becomes hot and turbid ; and a great many bubbles and filaments appear to run through it in all directions: there exhales from it a lively, acid smell, which is in no way dangerous: it absorbs a great deal of air. There is a necessity for stopping the fermentation every twelve hours: by degrees these phænomena disappear; the heat falls, the emotion ceases, and the liquor becomes clear. It deposits a glareous sediment, in reddish flakes which stick to the sides of the casks. It appears, from a sufficient number of experiments, that the smaller the quantity of the wine, and the more it is exposed to the contact of air, so much the more readily does it pass into the state of vinegar. Care must be taken to draw off the vinegar clear, when it is thus prepared, in order to separate the lye, which, were this precaution neglected, would cause it to pass into the state of putrid fermentation.—Vinegar does not, like wine, deposite tartar, by rest: that salt was dissolved, and combined with the alcohol and water, during the fermentation. It is even probable, that the presence of salt has a principal influence in calling forth the properties of vinegar from a latent state. This vinegar is of a lighter or an higher colour, according to the nature of the wine from which it is prepared: but even the lightest coloured vinegar is generally much higher coloured than any sort of white wine; because the colouring part of the tartar which has been called forth from a latent state by the production of the acid, is dissolved in it.

Vinegar prepared in the manner above described is extremely fluid, of an acid, spiritous smell, and of a taste in a greater or a less degree sour. It reddens blue vegetable colours. When exposed to a moderate heat, in vessels indifferently stopped, it is altered, loses its spiritous part, deposits a great deal of mucilaginous flakes and filaments,

filaments, and assumes a putrid taste and smell. M. Scheele has shewn, that it must be boiled for a few minutes, in order that it may be preserved unspoiled.

When vinegar is distilled by naked fire in a stone cucurbit covered with a capital, or in a glass retort on a sand-bath, it affords a phlegm of a lively and agreeable smell, scarcely acid; to which immediately succeeds a very white, and strongly odorous acid liquor: this is distilled vinegar: What follows is less odorous, but more acid; and the farther the process advances, the more acid does the product become.—These several products may be taken separately; by which means, so many different sorts of distilled vinegar will be obtained, of various degrees of acidity and smell. The operator must be satisfied with obtaining two thirds of the liquor which forms the purest vinegar. The portion which passes after that, is more acid; but it has an empyreumatic smell, which may be removed by exposing it to the air. It likewise acquires a faint colour. This operation shews the acetous acid to be more ponderous than water. The residue is thick, and of a dirty, deep red colour. It deposits a certain quantity of tartar, and is, in an high degree, acid.—Evaporated over an open fire, it takes the form of an extract; and if, when dry, it be distilled in a retort, it affords an acid, reddish phlegm, an oil which is at first light and coloured, but becomes afterwards ponderous, with a little ammoniac.—The residual coal, now left, contains a considerable proportion of fixed alkali.

Vinegar may be concentrated by exposing it to frost.—That portion which still remains liquid, becomes highly acid, and is decanted off. The frozen part is almost entirely water. Only a very little vinegar is obtained by this operation.

The acid of vinegar, when separated from tartar and
from

from its colouring part by distillation, is susceptible of combination with a great number of bodies.

It combines only in an imperfect manner with aluminous earth, and forms with it needled crystals, the properties of which are but very little known. The name of this salt (in the new Nomenclature) is *Acetite of aluminous earth*.

It combines readily with ammoniac, affording in the combination a salt, which is extremely soluble in water, and does not crystallize, but affords, by evaporation, a viscid, deliquescent mass. Acetite of magnesia is decomposable by fire, by mineral acids, by barytes, by lime, and by the three alkalis.—It is very soluble in alcohol.

The acetous acid combines with lime; and decomposes chalk, disengaging its acid in the form of an elastic fluid.—The salt which it forms with lime, crystallizes into very fine needled crystals, of a glossy appearance, like satin.—Calcareous acetite is sour and bitter: it effloresces in the air. It is decomposed by fire; by fixed alkalis, which separate the earth; and by mineral acids, which disengage the acid.

The combination of the acetous acid with potash, is improperly called, in the laboratories, *foliated earth of tartar*: it should be denominated, *acetite of potash*. In preparing this salt, a quantity of very pure distilled vinegar is poured upon carbonate of potash, prepared by the incineration of tartar; the mixture is stirred; and vinegar is poured in, till the salt be fully dissolved, and the two substances mutually saturated:—there should rather, indeed, be an excess of the acid.—This liquor is filtrated, and evaporated by a very moderate fire, in a vessel of porcelain or pure silver. When it becomes thick, the evaporation is continued on a water-bath till it be quite dry. By this means a very white salt is obtained.—If
exposed

exposed to too much heat, it takes a grey or a brown colour, because a portion of the vinegar is burnt.—Some chemists affirm, that acetite of potash may be obtained in a regular form, by suffering the evaporated solution to a thick pellicle.

Acetite of potash is of a pungent, acid, urinous taste.—By the action of fire it is decomposed, so as to afford, in the retort, an acid phlegm, an empyreumatic oil, ammoniac, and a large quantity of strong-smelling gas, consisting of carbonic acid, with hydrogenous gas. The residual coal contains a good deal of naked potash.—This salt strongly attracts the moisture of the atmosphere, and is very soluble in water. The sulphuric acid decomposes it. To effect this decomposition, one part of concentrated sulphuric acid is poured on two parts of acetite of potash, introduced into a tubulated glass retort, with a receiver fitted to it. There is instantly disengaged, with a lively effervescence, a vaporous fluid, of a poignant smell, which, in the receiver, condenses into acetic acid, the *radical* principle of *vinegar*. This vinegar is highly concentrated, and strongly acid, but not pure, and always mixed with a certain quantity of sulphureous acid, which may be distinguished by its smell.—The tartareous acidulum likewise decomposes acetite of potash; because it has a nearer affinity than the acetous acid with the alkaline base of this salt.

Vinegar enters into a perfect combination with soda, and forms with it a salt which has been improperly called *crystallizable foliated earth*: We give it the denomination of *acetite of soda*. The only difference between this salt and acetite of potash, is, that it crystallizes in striated prisms, much like those of sulphate of soda, and does not attract moisture from the atmosphere. To obtain it in regular crystals, its solution must be evaporated

to a pellicle, and then set in a cool place. Acetite of soda, like acetite of potash, is decomposable by fire, and by mineral acids. To these particulars we may add, that when calcareous and alkaline acetous salts are distilled by a strong fire, the residues which they leave are so many pyrophori, and burn when exposed to the air. M. Proust, to whom we owe these discoveries, thinks the division of a carbonaceous residue, by an earth or a metallic oxide, to be the only condition necessary to the production of a pyrophorus.

The acid of vinegar forms, with ammoniac, a liquor that is called *spirit of Mendererus*, and is, properly, ammoniacal acetite. This salt is so volatile that it cannot be evaporated without a great part of it being lost; yet, by slow evaporation, it may be obtained in needled crystals which are of a hot pungent taste, and very speedily attract moisture from the atmosphere. Ammoniacal acetite is decomposed by the action of fire; by lime and alkalis, which disengage the ammoniac; and by mineral acids, which separate the acetous acids.

Vinegar acts upon almost all metallic substances; and exhibits, in its combinations with them, a number of very important phenomena.

It does not appear that this fluid is capable of effecting an immediate solution of oxide of arsenic; but that oxide, by distillation with equal parts of acetite of potash, afforded M. Cadet and the chemists of the academy of Dijon, a fuming liquor of a very stinking smell, very tenacious, and of a very singular nature. M. Cadet first observed this liquor to be capable of inflaming fat lute. The academicians of Dijon, wishing to examine a yellowish matter of an oleaginous consistency, which they found accumulated in the bottom of a bottle containing arsenico-acetous fuming liquor, decanted off a part of the supernatant

pernatant liquor, and poured the rest on a paper filter. Only two or three drops had passed, when suddenly there arose a very thick smoke, of a nauseous smell, which formed a column extending from the vessel to the ceiling of the room: a sort of ebullition took place around the edges of the matter, and from it there arose a beautiful rose-coloured flame, which continued to burn for several seconds. A particular account of these elegant experiments may be seen in the third volume of the *Elements of Chemistry* of Dijon. They compare the liquor of which we are speaking to a liquid phosphorus: We take it to be a sort of pyrophorus, as well as some others of which we are hereafter to speak. The residue remaining after the distillation of acetite of potash, with oxide of arsenic, consists chiefly of potash.

Vinegar dissolves oxide of cobalt: the solution is of a pale rose colour.

It acts neither on bismuth, nor on its oxide; but dissolves oxide of manganese.

It accomplishes a direct solution of nickel, according to M. Arwidsson. This solution affords green crystals, of the form of a spatula.

This acid does not act upon antimony; but it appears to dissolve the vitreous oxide of that semi-metal; for Angelus Sala made up an emetic preparation of these two substances.

Both zinc and its oxide dissolve very readily in distilled vinegar. M. Monnet obtained, by evaporating this solution, crystals in the form of broad plates. Acetite of zinc fulminates on the coals, and gives out, on the occasion, a faint blueish flame. It affords, by distillation, an inflammable liquor, a yellowish oily fluid, the colour of which soon changes to a deep green, and a white sublimate, which burns by the light of a taper, with a beautiful blue flame.

flame. The residue is in the state of a scarcely combustible pyrophorus.

The acid of vinegar does not dissolve mercury in a metallic state. This combination may, however, be effected, by attenuating the mercury into very small particles, in the manner of Keyser. Mercury, in the state of oxide, combines easily with vinegar. The only thing necessary to produce this combination, is, to boil the acid upon the red oxide of mercury, called *precipitate per se*, upon *turbith*, or upon mercury precipitated by potash from a nitric solution of that metal. The liquor becomes white, but regains its transparency while boiling. It is filtrated. By cooling it precipitates silver-coloured crystals in the form of sparkling scales, resembling the crystals of the boracic acid. This acetite of mercury has obtained the name of *mercurial foliated earth*. It is prepared in an instant, by pouring a nitric solution of mercury into a solution of acetite of potash. The nitric acid combines with the fixed alkali of the latter of these salts, and forms with it nitre, which remains dissolved in the liquor: and the oxide of mercury, combining with the acid of vinegar, is precipitated in brilliant scales. This mixture is filtrated; and the acetite of mercury then remains on the filter. This salt is decomposed by the action of fire. Its residue affords a sort of pyrophorous. It is easily altered by combustible vapours.

Tin suffers but very little alteration from vinegar. This acid dissolves only a very small portion of the metal. The solution afforded M. Monnet, by evaporation, a yellowish substance resembling gum, and of a foetid smell.

Lead is one of those metals on which the acid of vinegar acts with the most powerful energy. It dissolves that metal with the greatest facility. Plates of lead, exposed to the steam arising from hot vinegar, are covered over
with

with a white dust, which is called *ceruse*, and is nothing but pure oxide of lead. This oxide, ground with one third part of chalk, forms what is used in painting under the name of white lead. To saturate vinegar with lead, the acid is poured upon *ceruse* in a matrafs. This mixture is digested on a sand-bath. After remaining in digestion for several hours, the liquor is filtered and evaporated to a pellicle. It affords, by cooling and rest, white crystals,—in the shape of irregular needles, if the liquor was too much concentrated,—or of flat parallelipeds, terminating in two sloping surfaces, when the process of evaporation is properly conducted. This acetite of lead is called *sal* or *saccharum Saturni*, on account of its saccharine taste. Its taste is likewise stiptic. A similar salt is prepared of litharge and vinegar. Equal parts of the two substances are boiled together till they be mutually saturated; and this mixture, after being evaporated to the consistency of clear syrup, forms M. Goulard's *extract of Saturn*, which was known, long before his time, by the name of *vinegar of Saturn*. Acetite of lead is decomposed by heat. It affords an acid liquor, which is ruddy, and strongly fœtid, but very different from radical vinegar, or the pure acetic acid of which we are soon to speak. The residue is a very good pyrophorus. This salt is decomposed by distilled water, by lime, alkalis, and mineral acids. The *extract of Saturn*, diluted in water, and mixed with a little brandy, forms the *vegeto-mineral* water.

Vinegar dissolves iron with considerable energy. The effervescence which takes place in this solution is owing to the disengagement of hydrogenous gas from the water which appears to be dissolved. The liquor assumes a red or brown colour. By evaporation it affords nothing but a gelatinous magma, mixed with a few oblong brown crystals. Acetite of iron has a stiptic sweetish taste.

taste. It is decomposed and deprived of its acid by fire. It attracts moisture from the atmosphere, and is decomposed in distilled water. When heated till it ceases to exhale the smell of vinegar, it then leaves a yellowish oxide, subject to the attraction of the loadstone. The acetous solution of iron affords with nut-gall, a very black ink, and might be very advantageously employed in dyeing. Alkaline Prussiates precipitate from it a very bright Prussian blue. Black, yellow, and brown oxide of iron, and native carbonate of iron, or *spathose iron ore*, afford, with vinegar, solutions of a very beautiful red colour.

Copper is very easily dissolved in the acetous acid. This solution, with the help of heat, takes, by degrees, a green colour. But the acid acts more readily on this metal, when it has been already oxidated by vinegar, and so converted into the substance called *verdigris*. Verdigris is prepared in the neighbourhood of Montpellier, by laying plates of copper into earthen vessels, in layers covered with the husks of grapes, previously sprinkled and fermented with weak vinegar. The surfaces of these plates are soon covered with a green rust; which is increased by piling them upon each other, and sprinkling them with weak vinegar. The copper is then scraped, and the verdigris put up in leather bags for sale. M. Montet, an apothecary at Montpellier, has given a very good description of this process in two memoirs printed among the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, in the years 1750 and 1753. Verdigris readily dissolves in vinegar. This solution is of a beautiful green colour, and affords, by evaporation and cooling, green crystals in truncated quadrangular pyramids, which are called *crystals of Venus*. The crystals prepared for commerce, which are called *distilled verdigris*, on account of their being prepared with distilled vinegar, are in the form of
fine

fine pyramids. These crystals take a pyramidal form, from their being deposited on a piece of wood split into four branches, which are kept separate by a piece of cork.

Acetite of copper has a very strong taste, and is a violent poison. It is decomposed by the action of fire. It effervesces in the air, and is covered over with a dust, the colour of which is a much paler green than the colour of the original salt. It is entirely dissolved in water, but not decomposed. Lime-water and alkalis precipitate this solution.

When this salt is reduced to powder, and distilled in a glass or earthen retort, with a receiver, it affords a fluid, which is at first white and somewhat acid, but soon becomes so strong as to be not inferior in acidity to concentrated mineral acids. The receiver is changed, in order that the phlegm and the acid may be obtained separate. The acid has been called *radical vinegar*, or *vinegar of Venus*. It is of a green colour, which it owes to a certain quantity of calx of copper that is carried up with it in the distillation. When the distillation ceases, and the retort is red-hot, the residue remaining is a brown copper-coloured dust, which frequently communicates a metallic tinge to the sides of the vessel. This residue, as has been observed by the Duke d'Ayen, and M. Proust, is strongly pyrophoric. *Vinegar of Venus* is rectified by distillation with a moderate heat. It is then perfectly white, provided it be not too much urged with fire towards the end of the operation, so as to reduce the oxide of copper, remaining in the retort, to too dry a state. The reduction of copper which may be observed in this operation, contributes to explain the nature of *radical vinegar*. This acid appears to bear the same relation to common vinegar, which the oxygenated muri-

atic acid bears to the pure muriatic acid :—or rather, the same which the sulphuric bears to the sulphureous acid, or the nitric to the nitrous acid. In this operation, the acétous acid combines with the oxigene of the oxide of copper, which passes, at the same time, into a metallic state. The effects in the production, of which *radical vinegar* differs essentially from common vinegar, seem to be owing to the oxigene which that acid acquires. For this reason, we give it, according to the rules of the nomenclature now adopted through this work, the name of the *acetic acid*.

The acetic acid, or radical vinegar, rectified in this manner, is of so lively and pungent a smell, that it can scarce be borne. Such is its causticity, that when applied to the skin, it corrodes and cauterizes it : it is extremely volatile and inflammable : when heated in contact with air, it takes fire, and burns with more or less rapidity, according as it is more or less rectified. This fact has led chemists to think, that vinegar contains alcohol, and is a sort of natural æther. The poignant, agreeable smell which the first portions of this acid diffuse, favours the same opinion.

Acetic acid evaporates all away in the air. It combines with water, with a considerable heat : with earths, alkalis, and minerals it forms salts different from those into which common vinegar enters ; we call them *acetates* of potash, soda, zink, mercury, &c. M. de Laffone has shewn, that the ammoniacal salt formed by radical vinegar, or the acetic acid, is not of the same nature with ammoniacal acetite, or spirit of Mendererus. Although we are not yet sufficiently acquainted with all these acetates ; yet their form, taste, and solubility, shew plainly, that they are of a different nature from acetites.

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The Marquis de Courtanvaux has shown, that nothing but the last portion of the acetic acid, obtained by the distillation of acetite of copper or *verdigris*, is susceptible of inflammation, and that it possesses likewise the property of being liable to congelation by cold. This last portion, rectified, crystallized in the receiver, in large plates, and in needles; nor did it become fluid, till it was exposed to a heat thirteen or fourteen degrees above the freezing point. In this property, this substance resembles the oxygenated muriatic acid.

The acetic acid decomposes alcohol, and forms æther as readily as mineral acids, as has been discovered by the Count de Lauraguais. All that is necessary to produce this effect, is to pour a quantity of radical vinegar upon an equal quantity of alcohol. A considerable heat is excited. The retort is placed upon a hot sand-bath; and two receivers are adapted to it, the most distant of which communicates with a quantity of cold water, or pounded ice. This mixture must be quickly boiled. There arises from it, first, a dephlegmated alcohol; after that, æther; and then an acid, which becomes gradually stronger, as the process advances. In the retort there remains a brown mass much like a resin. Care must be taken to change the receiver as soon as the smell of the æther becomes acrid and pungent, and to collect the acid by itself. The acetic æther, thus obtained, must be rectified by a moderate heat with potash. In this operation there is a good deal of it lost. The fermentation of this æther is owing to radical vinegar's containing an excess of oxygen. Scheele relates, that he never succeeded in preparing acetic æther from radical vinegar combined with alcohol, and could not accomplish this preparation without adding a mineral acid. M. Pærner had already made the same remark on the difficulty of obtaining acetic

tic æther by M. de Lauraguais' process. A great many French chemists have, however, employed this process; and I myself, among others, with sufficient success.

M. de La Planche, apothecary, prepares acetic æther by pouring concentrated sulphuric acid and alcohol upon acetite of lead introduced into a retort. The theory and practice of this operation differ, in no respect, from those of the analogous process by which nitric and muriatic æther are prepared. Acetic æther has, like every other sort of æther, an agreeable smell; which, however, is always mixed with the smell of vinegar, though not acid. It is very volatile and inflammable, burns with a lively flame, and leaves, after its combustion, a carbonaceous mark.

Chemists need to make yet many more researches into the nature of the acetic acid. What we have here said concerning its properties, will serve to shew, 1. That it differs in a singular manner from the acetous acid or common vinegar. 2. That the difference is owing to the acetic acid's containing more oxigene than the acetous; which excess it has derived from the oxide of copper.—Let us now resume the examination of the other properties of common vinegar.

The acetous acid, with the help of heat, dissolves the gold precipitated by fixed alkali, from the oxygenated muriatic acid. This acetous solution of gold, precipitated by ammoniac, affords *fulminating gold*, as has been shown by Bergman. It acts in the same way on platina and silver. While these metals are in a metallic state, vinegar is incapable of acting upon them; but it dissolves them, when exposed to it in the state of oxides.

Vinegar is capable of combining with many of the immediate principles of vegetables: It dissolves extracts, mucilages, and essential salts. It combines with the aroma: It is thought to be the proper solvent for gum resins.

sins. It has even, at length, or by the way of distillation, a discernible influence on fat oils, and reduces them to a sort of saponaceous state. The combinations of vinegar with vegetable substances, have not been farther examined with any accuracy.

This acid is used in the extraction of several of the principles of vegetables, especially in the extraction of their odoriferous principle; and various sorts of vinegar, both simple and compound, are prepared for medical uses. Vinegar of squills, colchicum, &c. afford instances of the simple; theriacal vinegar, and the vinegar of the four thieves, are compounds. These medicines are prepared by maceration and digestion, continued for several days. As this acid is volatile, it is distilled on aromatic plants, whose odoriferous principle it takes up. Of this kind is the distilled vinegar of lavender, which is used at the toilet. These liquors are, in general, not so agreeable as spiritous distilled waters.

Vinegar is very much used as an article of seasoning. It is much used in medicine, as being cooling and antiseptic: There is a syrup made up of sugar and vinegar, which is administered with success in burning and putrid fevers, &c. This acid, applied externally, is astringent and resolvent. All its combinations are, in like manner, used as excellent medicines.

Acetite of potash, and acetite of soda, which are known by the names of *terra foliata tartari*, and *acetous mineral salt*, are powerfully discutient and aperient: They are given in doses of half a drachm, or even a drachm each.

Spirit of Mendererus, or ammoniacal acetite, given in doses of a few drops, in certain drinks, is aperient, diuretic, cordial, antiseptic, &c. It is often successful in

the leucophlegmatia, or swelling of the external parts of the body.

Acetite of mercury, or *terra foliata tartari*, is an excellent anti-venereal: it is the principal ingredient in Keyser's pills.

The *extract of Saturn*, *vinegar of Saturn*, and *vegeto-mineral* water, are applied externally, as desiccatives. They are violently repercussive, and ought therefore to be very cautiously administered, especially when applied to excoriated or ulcerated parts. Boerhaave mentions several young women who were attacked with consumptions, in consequence of the external use of preparations of lead.

Ceruse enters into the composition of desiccative unguents and plasters; and *verdigris* into several collyria and unguents.

The acetic acid, or *radical vinegar*, is given as a very active, irritating, and stimulating medicine. It is held to the nostrils of persons in fainting fits. In order that it may be the more conveniently made use of, a certain quantity of this acid is poured on sulphate of potash in a coarse powder, and put into a close-stopped phial. This medicine is well known in the world, under the name of *salt of vinegar*.

Acetic æther has not yet been applied to use; and it is not known whether it possesses any virtues different from those of the other sorts of æther.

C H A P. XXV.

Of the Putrid Fermentation of Vegetables.

ALL vegetable substances that have suffered the spiritous and the acid fermentation, are still liable to undergo another intestine motion, which is called *putrid fermentation*. Stahl and several other chemists think this fermentation to be nothing but a consequential part of the two other fermentations already described ;—or rather, that the phænomena of all the three arise from one internal emotion, the tendency of which is to destroy the texture of the solids, and to alter the nature of the fluids. It is, in fact, observable, that certain vegetable substances pass, of themselves, through three successive fermentations. For instance, all saccharine matters, diluted in a certain quantity of water, and exposed to a heat of—from 60 to 80 degrees, afford, first wine, then vinegar, and at last lose entirely their character of acidity: they are altered, become putrid, lose all their volatile principles, and are in the end reduced to a dry, insipid, earthy substance. It is to be observed, however, that a great number of vegetable substances are not, in any sensible manner, liable to pass successively through these

three sorts of fermentation, in the above mentioned order. Insipid mucilages and gums dissolved in water pass into an acid, without becoming discernibly spiritous: the glutinous matter again seems to pass, all at once, into a state of putrefaction, without becoming acid. It appears, then, that although in several of the principles of vegetables, these three fermentations follow each other in regular succession, yet many of those principles are susceptible of the two latter species of fermentation, without having previously undergone the former; nay, are even liable to putrefaction, without becoming previously acid. Those of the last mentioned character partake of the nature of animal substances, and accordingly afford ammoniac by the action of fire, and azotic gas by the acid of nitre. It is in consequence of their possessing such characteristics, that these vegeto-animal substances putrefy so readily.

Certain conditions, well worthy of our attention, are requisite, in order that the intestine motion which changes the nature of vegetable matters, and reduces them to their elementary principles, may take place. Humidity, or the presence of water, is one of the most indispensable of these conditions. Dry, solid vegetables, such as wood, suffer no alteration while they continue in that state; but when their fibres are separated by moisture, an intestine motion then commences. Water appears, therefore, to be one of the causes of putrefaction. And when we come to examine the animal kingdom, we will have occasion to see, that the intestine motion which produces putrefaction begins with the decomposition of that liquid. Heat is not less necessary to putrefaction. Cold, or the temperature of ice, is not only adverse to this spontaneous destruction in substances which have not yet begun to suffer from it; but even retards its progress,

gress, and, in some measure, reverses it where it has already begun to operate. The degree of heat necessary to putrefaction, is much inferior to what is required for the spiritous and the acid fermentation; for putrefaction takes place at the temperature of 45 degrees; but a more considerable heat is still more favourable; at least, if it be not so violent as to volatilize all the moisture of the putrescent substance, and render it entirely dry. Access of air is another condition, singularly favourable to putrefaction; for vegetable substances are very well preserved *in vacuo*. The contact of air, however, is not so indispensibly necessary to putrefaction as the two other conditions already mentioned; for this phænomenon sometimes takes place without its assistance.

The putrefaction of vegetables exhibits peculiar phænomena. Vegetable fluids, when they putrefy, become turbid, lose their colour, and deposit various sediments: bubbles ascend to the surface, and mouldiness gathers over it in the beginning of the alteration. Soft vegetable matters exhibit the same phænomena, on being simply wet. The emotion then produced is at no time so considerable as that which appears in the cases of spiritous and acetous fermentation. The putrefying body does not appear to increase in bulk, nor does its temperature become higher. But the principal phænomenon of putrefaction is, change of smell, with the volatilization of an urinous, pungent, acrid principle,—in a word, ammoniac. From this circumstance, putrefaction has been called alkaline fermentation, and ammoniac considered as its product. The pungent smell exhales by degrees, and is succeeded by a nauseous, insipid smell, which can scarce be described. The decomposition has now attained its height: The putrid, vegetable mass, is become very soft, like a jelly; it sinks down, and the odorous principle exhaling from it suffers a great many successive modifications.

tions. At last it becomes dry, and loses, by degrees, its disagreeable smell; and what remains is nothing but a blackish, and seemingly carbonaceous residue, known by the name of *humus vegetabilis*, which is found to contain nothing but saline and earthy substances. Such is the order of the phænomena that are successively observed in the spontaneous decomposition of putrefying vegetables. But this process of decomposition, when carried so far as to reduce the vegetable body to an earthy or saline residue, is extremely tedious, and, we may even add, has never yet been observed by any person with suitable attention. Chemists and naturalists have paid still less attention to the putrefaction of vegetable, than to that of animal substances. No philosopher has hitherto undertaken to observe all the phænomena of the putrefaction of vegetables, but many have begun to describe those which attend the putrefaction of animal matters. Here, therefore, it appears proper for us to conclude our history of the spontaneous and natural decomposition of vegetables with the following observations: 1. The little which we have here said concerning it, is sufficient to show, that the putrefaction of vegetables attenuates, volatilizes, and destroys all their humours, and reduces them to an earthy state: 2. We have as yet no certain knowledge of the phænomena and the limits of this species of putrefaction, which is to be carefully distinguished from the putrefaction of animal matters: 3. Lastly, as this fermentation is much more conspicuous, and has been much more attentively observed in the humours and solids of animals; the more extensive detail of particulars which we are to give, in our account of animal substances, will complete the sketch which we have here marked out, and conclude the history of those facts that are known concerning putrefaction.

PART FOURTH.

The ANIMAL KINGDOM,

CHAP. I.

Of the Chemical Analysis of Animal Substances in general (1).

IN the analysis of animal substances, we meet with greater difficulties than in any other part of chemistry; and our chemical knowledge of those substances is accordingly in a more imperfect state than any other branch of the science. The ancient chemists were content with distilling them by naked fire; an operation which is at present known to alter and totally destroy the nature of such compound bodies as the solids or fluids of animals. The only parts of animals that have yet been subjected to an analysis, are, some of the humours

(1) In the second edition of this Work, the animal kingdom began with a brief account of the nature of animals, the distinctions subsisting among them, the methods requisite for marking out those distinctions in Natural History and the Natural Philosophy of Animals. The mode of arrangement now adopted in these volumes, and the little connection between the natural description of animals, and the chemistry of animal matters, have induced me to remove that part into a fifth volume. A.

humours of the human body, and the humours of certain quadrupeds.

Many circumstances have concurred to retard the progress of this branch of chemistry. The difficulties with which researches of this kind were attended, and the contradictory results which they often afforded; the imperfection of the chemical methods with which, till within these few years, animal matters were always treated, and which constantly produced on them great alterations; the impossibility which was always found of approaching near to a reproduction of any animal matter by synthesis; and, above all, the smallness of the inducements which any but medical chemists could have to engage in such researches, are the principal reasons which have prevented the enlargement of this department of the science of chemistry. But the researches of several moderns, especially of Messrs Rouelle, Macquer, Bucquet, Pouilletier de la Salle, Berthollet, Proust, Scheele, and Bergman, have here opened a new tract of discovery, and shew, that the art of healing may derive the most signal advantages from researches of this kind.

The human body, and the bodies of quadrupeds—the principal animals which engage our attention—are composed of fluids and solids. The humours of animals are divided into three classes, according to the purposes for which they serve. The first contains the recremental humours, the use of which is to nourish certain organs: the second comprehends the excremental humours, which are evacuated by certain emunctories, as useless, and even noxious, when retained too long within the body: the third class consists of humours to which the characteristics of both the two former classes belong, they being partly recremental, and partly excremental. To the first class belong the blood, the lymph,
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the jelly or gelatinous part, the fibrous or glutinous part, the fat, the marrow, the matter which supports interior perspiration, and the osseous juice. The second class consists of the fluid which is insensibly transpired by the pores, the sweat, the mucus of the nostrils, the cerumen of the ears, the gummy matter of the eyes, the urine, and the fæces. Those of the third class are, the saliva, the tears, the bile, the pancreatic juice, the gastric and intestinal juices, the milk, and the feminal liquor. We cannot examine all these fluids in the order in which they are here mentioned; 1. Because they are still but very little known: 2. Because it is absolutely necessary that we treat first of such as have been the most completely analysed.

The solids of animals, which form the parenchyma of their different organs, may be divided into three classes. In the first of these classes I rank the soft white parts, such as the laminæ of the cellular tissue, the membranes, the membranous viscera, the aponeuroses, the ligaments, the tendons, and the skin. The soft red parts form a second class very different from the former; such are, particularly, the muscles, and a part of the organs which contain the muscular fibres, as the stomach, the intestines, the bladder, the matrix, &c. Lastly, the third class comprehends the osseous or bony solids.

Animal matters are at present analysed in a very different way from that in which they were analysed a few years since. They are no longer subjected to decomposition by fire; they are now treated by reagents, particularly acids, alkalis, alcohol, &c. The different fluids intermingled with each other, or contained in the vessels of the different parts, are separated by rest, decantation, filtration, or expression. The action of these substances on colouring matters is examined, and the several changes

changes which they are liable to suffer in different temperatures are observed. Animal liquors are carefully evaporated, and the different salts which they contain, extracted from them unaltered.

By these methods of analysis, modern chemists have made a number of important discoveries concerning animal substances. Scheele has found them to contain several acids different from those which were before known. M. Berthollet has demonstrated the existence of phosphoric acid, in a naked state, in urine and sweat; and has likewise found, in animal matters, a remarkable quantity of the azotic principle. This last discovery is one of the most important facts which the analysis of animal matters has made known to us. The existence of azote in these substances, especially in their fibrous parts, accounts for the difference between animal and vegetable matters. This body is obtained in the state of elastic fluidity, or in azotic gas, by treating the flesh of the muscles with nitric acid: even without the operation of any external heat, it is disengaged in a pretty large proportion; it passes before the nitrous gas, and when the nitrous gas begins to be disengaged, the operation should be stopped, and the vessels changed.

M. Berthollet explains, by this discovery, the formation of the ammoniac which animal substances afford when treated with fire,—the production and disengagement of that salt by putrefaction,—and the relation between these substances, and vegetable matters that are liable to putrefaction, and afford ammoniac by distillation. It appears, in fact, that in both these instances, the ammoniac is formed by the combination of hydrogen with azote. I believe I cannot here do better than give, in M. Berthollet's own words, what

what he has said concerning the nature of animal substances in general, in a Memoir read before the Faculty of Medicine, and inserted in the *Journal de Physique*, vol. 28. page 272.

“ Organized bodies are chiefly composed of two substances, which are distinguished from each other by very eminent peculiar characteristics. Of these substances, one class affords acids, when decomposed by the action of fire; the other *volatile alkali*: The one class forms *ardent spirit* by fermentation; the other immediately putrefies, still affording *volatile alkali*: The one leaves, when calcined, a coal that burns easily; the other is reduced to a coal which burns with difficulty: The one, in short, forms the greater part of vegetable, the other of animal substances; and hence they are distinguished by these two different denominations.

“ M. Bergman, by means of sugar and the *nitrous acid*, produced an acid which he called the *saccharine acid*, possessing peculiar and remarkable properties. On applying to animal substances this analysis by *nitrous acid*, I found that they all afforded more or less *saccharine acid*, which was always accompanied with a peculiar oil. I observed, that no ammoniacal salt was obtained, but a residue remained, which vegetable substances do not afford. From these first experiments, I concluded, in the *Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1780*, that animal matters contained some substance analogous to sugar, in combination with an oil which I considered as peculiar to animal matters. I learned farther, from my experiments, that *volatile alkali* did not exist in animal substances, but was produced by some combination, effected either by the action of heat, or

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“ by the influence of putrefaction. And lastly, the residue, concerning which I did not explain my sentiments in that Memoir, contains an excess of phosphoric acid, combined with calcareous earth.

“ I afterwards examined the action of metallic *calces* and salts on animal substances, and proved, that the action to which these owed their causticity was a consequence of the chemical affinities by which metallic *calces* tended, with more or less force, to revivification; the *calces* of silver and mercury, which are very easily reduced, having an high degree of causticity, and forming very caustic salts. It follows, on applying the late discoveries of natural philosophers to the theory which I have given, that it is the air, existing in a combined state in metallic *calces*, and without its principle of elasticity, which tends to unite with some principle in animal substances; which principle appears to me to be the oil which they contain. But the causticity of alkalis cannot be ascribed to the same cause; it must be owing to some other affinity. In the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1782, I have proved that caustic alkali dissolves animal substances, without dividing their principles. I have explained the properties of this combination, and afterwards employed it in uniting animal substances with the different metallic *calces*. Several combinations, not previously known to chemists, were produced: But caustic alkali, treated in the same way with vegetable substances, formed no combination with them.

“ Pursuing my researches, I have at length discovered the principles of *volatile alkali*. I have shown *volatile alkali* to be a combination of detonating *inflammable gas*, or, more accurately, of the inflammable gas

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of water with *phlogisticated* or *mephitic* air, in such proportions, that inflammable gas composes one-sixth of the weight, or two-thirds of the bulk of *volatile alkali*. I next ascertained in what manner *volatile alkali* may be produced by putrefaction, or the action of fire. All substances possessing the characteristics of animal substances, contain *mephitis*, which may be separated from them in abundance, by the operation of the *nitrous acid*. When those substances are distilled, therefore, their *mephitis* must, of necessity, either pass into some new combination, or be found among their aeriform products. But among these last it is never found; as I fully ascertained by detonizing *inflammable gas*, obtained by this means, in M. Volta's eudiometer, and comparing it with inflammable gas obtained by distillation from charcoal, and with that of vegetable substances; and, after the *inflammable gas*, there is none other but the *volatile alkali* among the products obtained by distillation from animal substances, into the composition of which the *mephitis* can possibly be received. Consequently, whenever *volatile alkali* is formed, the *mephitis* of the animal substances combines with the *inflammable gas* separated from the oil, or more probably with that produced by the decomposition of the water, whose vital air combines at the same time with charcoal, to form *fixed air*; in putrefaction, the *inflammable gas* combines with the *mephitis*; whereas, in the spiritous fermentation, the same gas combines with a vegetable oil and sugar to form *spirit of wine*, in which I have discovered and separated these substances by means of the *dephlogisticated marine acid*.

From these several observations, it follows, that animal substances are of a much more compound nature than substances purely vegetable. They contain

“ a matter analogous to sugar, a peculiar oil, phosphoric
“ acid combined with calcareous earth, *mephitic*, and very
“ probably *fixed air*. It is the phosphoric acid which
“ exists in the coal of animal substances, in combination
“ with a portion of real charcoal, oil and earth, that ap-
“ pears to me to occasion the difference observed between
“ the coals of animal and those of vegetable substances.”

Such is the accuracy and perspicuity with which M. Berthollet explains the nature of animal substances in general. When these distinct facts and fair deductions are compared with the vague notions which before prevailed concerning the difference between animal and vegetable matters, the progress which chemistry has made within these few years, by means of the researches of Swedish and French chemists, cannot but appear astonishing. There is the strongest reason to hope, that farther experiments on animal matters, upon the same plan which has been marked out and pursued by the most celebrated chemists, from Margraf and Rouelle to the present instant, will supply a great deal of valuable information concerning these substances; their formation, the alterations which they are liable to undergo, and their destruction; and particularly, may be of the most essential service to the science of Medicine. The truth of this assertion will be fully proved, by the account of the discoveries already made, and of their application, which we are to exhibit in the following chapters.

C H A P. II:

Of the Blood:

THE most important, the most compound, and the most impenetrable of the recrementitial humours, is the blood. We treat of it first, because the greatest physicians maintain it to be the source and centre of all the other animal fluids. Many physicians, especially M. Bordeu, have considered it as a sort of running flesh, a compound of all the animal humours: an opinion, which, though highly probable, has not been yet fully demonstrated.

The blood is a fluid of a beautiful red colour, of a fat, unctuous, and, as it were, a saponaceous consistency; of a taste somewhat saline, but almost insipid; and contained in the heart, arteries, and veins. This fluid is differently modified by the different parts through which it flows: For instance, in the arteries and veins, in the breast and the region of the liver, in the muscles and the glands, &c. it is not the same. This fact has not sufficiently engaged the attention of chemists.

In considering the blood as it exists through the whole animal kingdom, we observe, that in different

animals it is singularly diversified in colour, consistency, smell, and especially temperature. The last is the most important of all these properties, and seems to depend on the circulation and the respiration. The human blood, and that of quadrupeds and birds, is hotter than the medium which they inhabit; and, for this reason, these are called *hot-blooded animals*. The blood of fishes and reptiles, again, is nearly of the same temperature with the medium which they inhabit; and these are, for this reason, called *cold-blooded animals*. Other properties of this fluid, especially its chemical qualities or characteristics, would probably be found, if we were acquainted with the blood of all animals, to be subject to the same variations.

The human blood, which more especially engages our attention, is differently modified by the age, the sex, the temperament and the state of the health of each individual. In infants, the female sex, and consumptive persons, it is paler and thinner. In robust and healthy persons, it is thick, of a deep red colour, almost black, and of a much more saline taste than in the former.

Before proceeding to an analysis of the blood, it is necessary that we get acquainted with its physical properties—its colour, heat, taste, smell, and peculiar consistency—of which we have already taken notice. By the microscope we discover in it a great many globules, which, according to Lieuwenhoek and Boerhaave, when broken in circulating through the smaller passages, lose their red colour, and become first yellow, and then white; so that, according to the physician of Leyden, a red globule is an assemblage of other smaller white globules, and owes its colour to its aggregation. There is another singular property belonging to the blood. While hot and in motion, it continues fluid and red:

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When cooled and at rest, it becomes a solid mass, which, by degrees, separates into two parts; the one red and supernatant, its colour dark, and its consistency concrete, till such time as it suffer an alteration;—this is called the clot of the blood: the other occupies the bottom of the vessel, and is of a greenish yellow colour, and adhesive;—it is called the serum or lymph. This spontaneous coagulation and separation of the two parts of the blood takes place in the last moments of an animal's life; and produces those concrete matters which are found in the heart, and the larger vessels of deceased animals, and have been mistaken for polypi.

Blood, exposed to a gentle and continued heat, passes into the state of putrid fermentation. When distilled on a water-bath, it affords a phlegm of a faint smell, which is neither acid nor alkaline, but easily putrefies, in consequence of its containing an animal substance dissolved through it. Exposed to a more intense heat, blood, as has been discovered by De Haen, gradually coagulates and becomes dry: it then loses seven-eighths of its weight, and becomes capable of effervescence with acids. By conducting the fire properly, it may be hardened into a sort of corneous substance. Desiccated blood, exposed to the open air, attracts from it some degree of moisture, and, in the course of a few months, there is formed on it a saline efflorescence, which Rouelle has determined to be carbonate of soda. When distilled by naked fire, it affords a saline phlegm,—that is, a phlegm holding in solution an ammoniacal salt, supersaturated with ammoniac. The nature of the empyreumatic acid contained in this ammoniacal salt, which was first observed by Wicussens, and has given rise to so many disputes among physiologists, has never yet been sufficiently examined. After this phlegm, a light oil passes,—then a ponderous, coloured oil, and ammoniacal carbonate contaminated

with a thick oil. There remains in the retort a spongy coal, very difficult to be incinerated, which is found to contain muriate of soda, carbonate of soda, oxide of iron, and a matter apparently earthy, which seems to be calcareous phosphate.

Blood combined with alkalis, without previous decomposition, becomes more fluid by standing. Acids instantaneously coagulate it, and alter its colour. By filtering this substance, evaporating the liquor passed through the filter, drying it before a moderate fire, and lixiviating the matter that has been dried, neutral salts are obtained, consisting of soda with the acid that was mixed with the blood. Alcohol coagulates blood.

Experiments made on blood in its original state, do not discover the nature of the substances of which it consists. But the spontaneous decomposition of blood, and the separation of its two component parts, the clot and the serum, afford us an opportunity of acquiring that knowledge by examining each of these matters by itself. Till within these few years, the chemical analysis of the blood was confined to what has been related in the foregoing pages; but Messrs Menghini, Rouelle the younger, and Bucquet have examined this fluid in a very different manner. The two last of these chemists especially have conducted their experiments on this matter in a way which shews to what perfection the analysis of animal matters may be carried, by proceeding on their plan. The following account of the properties of the several substances which compose the blood, is derived from the discoveries of those philosophers.

The serum is very far from being pure water, but a peculiar matter, highly worthy of examination, to which we give the name of the *albuminous fluid*. It is of a yellowish white colour, somewhat inclining to green; its
taste

taste is saltish, but nearly insipid ; its consistency unctuous and adhesive. When exposed to the action of fire, it coagulates and becomes hard, long before it can be heated to ebullition : it communicates a green tinge to syrup of violets. By distillation on a water-bath, it affords a phlegm of a mild, insipid taste, which is neither acid nor alkaline, but speedily putrefies. After losing this phlegm, it is dry, hard, and transparent like horn : it is no longer soluble in water : by distillation in a retort, it affords an alkaline phlegm, a considerable quantity of ammoniacal carbonate, and a very foetid, thick oil. All these products, in general, have a peculiar foetid smell. The coal of the serum, when distilled by naked fire, almost entirely fills the retort. It is so difficult to incinerate, that it must be kept burning for several hours, and exposed to a great deal of fresh air before it can be reduced to ashes. The ashes are of a blackish grey colour, and contain muriate and carbonate of soda, with calcareous phosphate.

The serum, if exposed for some time to an hot temperature, in an open vessel, passes readily into a state of putrefaction, and then affords a considerable quantity of ammoniacal carbonate, with an oil, the smell of which is insufferably nauseous. It putrefies so speedily, that Bucquet could not discover whether it passed into an acid state before becoming alkaline. This liquor combines with water in any proportion ; and then it loses its consistency, its taste, and its greenish colour. To promote the combination, the mixture needs to be shaken ; because the difference between the densities of the two fluids obstructs their union. The serum, when poured into boiling water, coagulates almost wholly and instantaneously. A portion of that fluid forms, with the water, a sort of opaque and milky white liquor ; which,

according to Bucquet, possesses all the characteristic properties of milk; that is, is rarefied and caused to mount up, like that fluid, by heat, and is coagulated by the same agents—by acids, and by alcohol.

Alkalis render the serum more fluid by effecting a sort of solution of it. Acids alter it in a different manner, increasing its consistency, and coagulating it. This mixture, filtrated and evaporated after filtration, affords a neutral salt formed of soda and the acid employed: And this fact proves soda to exist in the serum in a naked state, in full possession of all its properties. The coagulum formed in this liquor by the addition of an acid, is very speedily dissolved in ammoniac, which is the genuine solvent of the albuminous part of the blood; but it does not dissolve at all in pure water. Acids precipitate this matter in union with ammoniac. The coagulum, distilled by naked fire, affords the same products as the serum desiccated; and its carbonaceous residue contains a good deal of carbonate of soda;—a circumstance which, in Bucquet's opinion, shews, that there exists a portion of that salt in a state of intimate combination, in the serum, which the acid employed to coagulate it does not saturate.

The serum, inspissated, affords azotic gas by the action of the nitric acid, with the help of a moderate heat. On increasing the fire, there is a quantity of nitrous gas disengaged from the mixture: the residue affords oxalic acid, and even a small quantity of malic acid.

The serum does not decompose calcareous or aluminous neutral salts; but it acts with sufficient energy in decomposing metallic salts. It is liable to be coagulated by alcohol: this coagulum differs considerably from that formed in the serum by acids, chiefly
in

in its solubility in water, as Bucquet has discovered. This liquid appears, therefore, from these researches, to be an animal mucilage, consisting of water, acidifiable oily bases, muriate and carbonate of soda, with calcareous phosphate : The rose-coloured precipitate which I have obtained by pouring a portion of a nitric solution of mercury into the serum, appears to be owing to the latter of these principles. Although this liquid has scarce any colour, yet nitric acid, and, still more, nitrate of mercury, produces, when poured into it, a rose or light flesh-colour, which I have had occasion to observe in many other animal liquors. The most singular property of this mucilage,—a property highly worthy of engaging the attention of physicians,—is, its being liable to become concrete by the action of fire and acids. Scheele thought this phenomenon owing to the combination of heat.

The clot of the blood affords, by exposure to the heat of a water-bath, an insipid water ; it becomes, at the same time, dry and brittle. It affords, in the retort, an alkaline phlegm, a thick oil, of a fœtid, empyreumatic smell, and a good deal of ammoniacal carbonate. The residue which it leaves, is a spongy coal, of a sparkling metallic aspect, difficult to incinerate, and affording, when treated with sulphuric acid, sulphate of soda and sulphate of iron : there remains, after these operations, a mixture of calcareous phosphate with carbonaceous matter. Exposed to an hot atmosphere, the clot putrefies readily enough. When washed with water, that fluid separates it into two very distinct matters ; the one it dissolves deriving from it a red colour. The solution, treated with different menstrua, exhibits all the same characteristics with the serum, but is found to contain much more iron. The metal is separated by incineration,

incineration, and by washing the incinerated coal, in order to carry off the saline matters. The remaining part of the lixivium, after the saline matters are carried off, is in the state of oxide of iron, of a brown colour, of considerable beauty. It is usually subject to the attraction of the magnet. Blood is thought to owe its colour to this metal. A very considerable proportion of iron has been extracted from this fluid by Messrs Menghini, Rouelle, and Bucquet.

The clot, after being washed and cleared from all the red serum which it contains, is in the state of a fibrous white matter; which it remains for us to examine.

The fibrous part of the blood is white and colourless, after being well washed: its taste is insipid. It affords, by distillation on a water-bath, an insipid phlegm, without smell, and liable to putrefaction. Even the gentlest heat hardens this fibrous matter in a singular manner. When exposed suddenly to a strong fire, it shrinks like parchment. By distillation in a retort, it affords an ammoniacal phlegm, a ponderous oil, which is thick and very fœtid, and a good deal of ammoniacal carbonate, contaminated with a portion of oil. The residual coal is not very bulky, but compact, ponderous, and easier incinerated than that of the serum. Its ashes are very white: it contains no saline matter, as it must have lost, by the washing, whatever it contained of that kind,—and no iron: it is a sort of residue of an earthy appearance, and seemingly calcareous phosphate.

The fibrous part of the blood putrefies very quickly and with great facility. When exposed to an hot, moist atmosphere, it swells, and affords a good deal of ammoniac. It is not soluble in water: when boiled in that fluid, it becomes hard, and acquires a grey colour. Al-

kalis

kalis do not dissolve it; but even the weakest acids combine with it: The nitric acid disengages from it a considerable quantity of azotic gas, as we are told by M. Berthollet; and at length dissolves it with effervescence and the disengagement of nitrous gas. When it ceases to emit nitrous gas, the residue is observed to contain oily and saline flakes swimming in a yellowish liquor: This liquor affords, by evaporation, oxalic acid in crystals; and, at the same time, deposits no inconsiderable quantity of flakes, composed of a peculiar oil and calcareous phosphate. It appears that there are in the fibrous part two oils; one of which constitutes, in combination with oxigene, oxalic acid; while the other forms, with the same principle, malic acid.

The fibrous matter dissolves also in the muriatic acid, which converts it into a sort of green jelly. The acid of vinegar dissolves it with the help of heat: Water, and especially alkalis, precipitate this fibrous matter from acids. This animal matter is decomposed in these combinations; and when separated, by whatever means, from acids, no longer exhibits the same properties. Neutral salts, and other mineral matters, are incapable of acting upon it. It unites with the albuminous matter, especially with that which is coloured, to form clot. This last substance, as well as the fibrous part, is totally soluble in acids; on account, no doubt, of the combination of that matter with the red serum. From this it appears, that the fibrous part differs greatly from the albuminous matter. It is more of an animal nature than that matter, being a sort of animal gluten, bearing no small resemblance to that of farina, and possessing the remarkable property of becoming concrete by rest and cooling. There is no doubt that this matter, which has not been sufficiently attended to by physiologists and pathologists,

thologists, acts an important part in the animal œconomy. I have a considerable time since observed, that it is deposited in the muscles, and constitutes the fibrous base of those organs, and that substance which is most eminently irritable. I have concluded this substance to merit more attention than it has yet obtained, and have considered it as capable of occasioning, by its excess or deficiency, certain diseases: And I have given my reasons for entertaining such opinions, in a memoir which is inserted among the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Medicine for the year 1783, &c. It appears that the peculiar acid which the blood affords by distillation, and which M. Chauffier has obtained from it by the action of alcohol, exists in the fibrous part of its substance. For this reason, I have proposed to call it the *cruoric acid*, if it should ever be determined to be a peculiar animal acid.

After all these ingenious discoveries concerning the nature of the blood, yet we are far from being sufficiently acquainted with all its chemical properties. We are yet ignorant of the minute difference which subsists between the serum and the fibrous part. The blood has not yet been examined in all its various states; particularly in different diseases, in which that fluid suffers considerable alterations, such as violent inflammations, the chlorosis, scurvy, &c. Physicians distinguish these alterations only by external appearances; and it is much to be wished that accurate analyses should determine their nature in such a manner as to afford a better direction to the practitioner in the art of healing.

Rouelle has examined the blood of various quadrupeds, the ox, the horse, the calf, the sheep, the hog, the ass, and the goat. He obtained from them the same products which the human blood affords, but in different proportions.

C H A P. III.

Of the Milk.

THE milk is a recrementitial humour, designed by nature for the nourishment of the young of animals in the first period of their existence. It is of a dead white colour, a mild saccharine taste, and a smell faintly aromatic. The female of the human species, female quadrupeds, and cetaceous animals of the same species, are the only animals that afford milk. No other animal is furnished with organs for the secretion of this humour. It was long thought, that the milk was immediately separated by glands in the breasts, from the blood conveyed into them by the numerous arteries which meet there. But the principles of which milk is known to consist, have not been hitherto proved to exist in the blood; and late discoveries in anatomy have shewn, that the breasts are furnished with a great many lymphatic and absorbent vessels, disposed in a greasy tissue; and the liquor which these contain, is perhaps one of the chief constituent principles of milk.

Milk

Milk is very different in different animals. In woman it is highly saccharine. Cow's milk is mild, and its principles are intimately united. The milk of the goat and the ass possesses peculiar virtues, and is often gently astringent. The properties of milk are liable to vary, as they commonly depend on the nature of the food with which animals are nourished.

Cow's milk, which we may take as an instance, as it is so easily procured, is a compound of three different substances; serum or whey, which is fluid and transparent,—butter and cheese, which have more consistency. These three parts are so mixed and suspended, as to form a sort of animal emulsion.

Milk, distilled by the heat of a water-bath, affords an insipid, inodorous phlegm, susceptible of putrefaction. Exposed to a heat somewhat stronger, it coagulates like blood, as has been observed by Bucquet. When stirred and evaporated slowly, it forms a sort of saccharine extract, known by the name of *franchipane*. This extract, dissolved in water, forms Hoffman's whey. Distilled by naked fire, it affords acid, fluid oil, concrete oil, and ammoniacal carbonate. Its residual coal contains a little potash, muriate of potash, and calcareous phosphate.

Milk, exposed to an hot temperature, is liable to pass into a state of spiritous fermentation, in which it forms a sort of wine; but a considerable quantity of it must be together, in order that this alteration may take place. The Tartars prepare a spiritous liquor from mare's milk. The milk becomes quickly acid, and then coagulates. The cheese gathers into a mass, leaving the whey separate.

Acids have instantaneously the same effect on milk. They coagulate it; this *coagulum* is again dissolved by alkalis, especially by ammoniac. Boerhaave asserts, that
milk

milk boiled with oil of tartar becomes first yellow, and takes afterwards a blood-red colour. He is even of opinion, that it is by some such combination milk is converted in the human body into the state of real blood. Neutral salts, sugar and gum likewise coagulate milk, with the help of heat ; as has been observed by Scheele.

To make whey, milk must be warmed with an addition of rennet, in the proportion of twelve or fifteen grains to the pint. This substance being a mixture of milk soured in the stomachs of calves, with the gastric juice, is a fermenting substance which coagulates the caseous part. After this coagulation is effected, the whey is strained from the curds. *Gallium*, the flowers of thistles, and artichokes act on milk in the same way as rennet. The external membrane of the stomachs of calves and birds, when dried and reduced to powder, produces the same effect on milk : a fact which proves, that the coagulation of this liquor is owing to the dried gastric juice contained in the pores of that membrane.

The serum or whey prepared in this way, is turbid : it may be clarified with white of eggs and tartar. When the serum or whey is wanted very pure, in order to be examined, no acidulous tartarite of potash should be intermixed with it.

Whey has a mild taste. When prepared from new milk, it contains a saccharine essential salt ; but it soon acquires a sour taste, in consequence of that fermentation which takes place in it. This emotion is produced by the alteration of a mucilaginous principle contained in milk ; and it is the extrication of this acid from a latent state which separates the whey from the other principles of which milk consists. It will therefore be proper to
examine

examine the nature of the acid which is formed in sour milk, and constitutes fermented whey.

It is well known, that milk left to itself at a temperature of seventy or eighty degrees, suffers, in the space of a few days, a fermentation which develops an acid, and separates the butter and cheese. The acid which is formed by this fermentation, and acquires, in the space of twelve or fifteen days, all the strength of which it is capable, has been examined by Scheele : We call it the *lactic acid*. The following is the process by which Scheele obtained this acid pure, after attempting ineffectually to separate it from sour milk by distillation. This operation having afforded him only a very small portion of acid, he evaporated sour whey to an eighth part, after filtering it, to separate all the caseous matter. The animal earth he precipitated by lime-water. He diluted it with three times its weight of water ; and separated the lime by oxalic acid. To ascertain whether any oxalic acid remained in it, he assayed it with lime water ; and then evaporated the liquor to the consistency of honey ; and precipitated the sugar of milk, and some other extraneous substances, by mixing with it alcohol, which easily dissolves the lactic acid. Lastly, he distilled this solution ; and after the alcohol was thus volatilized, the lactic acid remained pure in the retort. Scheele ascribes to this acid the following properties.

Evaporated even to a very thick consistency, it affords no crystals ; it attracts moisture from the atmosphere. By distillation it affords an empyreumatic acid, resembling the pyro-tartareous acid, a little oil, and a mixture of carbonic acid gas, with carbonated hydrogenous gas.

In union with the three alkalis, with barytes, or with lime, the lactic acid forms deliquescent salts. In combination

nation with magnesia, it forms crystals; but these, too, attract moisture from the atmosphere. Most of these salts of milk, or alkaline and earthy lactates, are soluble in alcohol. The acid of milk does not act, in any way, on cobalt, bismuth, antimony, mercury, silver, or gold, even though assisted by a boiling heat. It dissolves zinc and iron, producing from them hydrogenous gas: the former of these salts, lactate of zinc, crystallizes; the other, lactate of iron, forms a deliquescent brown mass.

The lactic acid oxidates and dissolves lead and copper. The lactic solution of lead deposits a little sulphate of lead; from which it appears, that this animal acid contains a small portion of sulphuric acid. Lastly, it decomposes acetite of potash: This last property, with the rest here mentioned as belonging to it, shew the lactic acid to be different in its nature from vinegar. To these particulars, Scheele adds, that real vinegar may be obtained from milk, by mixing six spoonfuls of alcohol with three pints of milk, and leaving the mixture to ferment in a well-stopped vessel: the gas disengaged by the fermentation of the mixture, must be, from time to time, suffered to escape: at the end of a month, the milk is found changed into good vinegar: it may be then strained through a cloth, and put up in bottles. The celebrated Swedish chemist adds farther, that milk in a bottle, the neck of which enters a vessel filled with the same liquor, undergoes, if exposed, in this condition, to an heat somewhat superior to the ordinary heat of summer, a fermentation which occasions the disengagement of a large quantity of elastic fluid: This fluid displaces the milk, so as nearly to empty the bottle in the space of two days: The acid produced by this fermentation, which takes place without the contact of air, seems to owe its oxigene, the acidifying base of air, to the decomposition of water.

The whey of sweet milk, separated by rennet, without fouring, holds in solution a certain quantity of a saline substance, known by the name of salt or sugar of milk. Although Kempfer asserts, that the Brachmans have a process for preparing this salt, it appears, that Fabricius Bartholet or Bartholdi, an Italian physician, first mentioned it to the world, in the year 1619. Et-muller, Testi, Werloschnigg, Wallisnieri, Fickius, and Cartheuser, have successively written concerning it, and described processes for its preparation. Messrs Vulgamoz and Lichtenstein have given very particular accounts of the art of extracting this saline substance, which is prepared in the great way in different places in Switzerland. They there evaporate whey, obtained from milk, by skimming it, and coagulating it with rennet, till it be reduced to the consistency of honey: This substance, put into moulds, and dried before the sun, forms sugar of milk in tablets: these are dissolved in water, clarified with white of eggs, and evaporated to the consistency of a syrup; and then the liquor is crystallized in the cold: white crystals are formed in it, in rhomboidal parallelepipeds: the mother water deposits yellow and brown crystals, which are purified by successive solutions.—M. Lichtenstein has examined and analysed the different sugars of milk that are sold in Switzerland at different prices; and has particularly distinguished, 1. *The sweet sugar of milk*, which is extracted from sweet purified whey: 2. *The acescent sugar of milk*, obtained from sour whey: 3. *Sugar of milk, rendered impure by a mixture of fat particles*, which, according to him, separates in the first crystallization: 4. *Sugar of milk, mixed with oil and common salt*, which is last crystallized: 5. *Sugar of milk, mixed with fat particles, common salt, and sal ammoniac*; it is glutinous and moist; treated with fixed alkali,

alkali, it affords ammoniac: 6. Lastly, Sugar of milk mixed with all the above-mentioned substances, *and likewise with extractive and caseous matter*; this last sugar is of the consistency of honey; it is liable to turn rancid, and is acrid and disagreeable.

Pure sugar of milk tastes, in a faint degree, like sugar, insipid, and somewhat earthy. By repeated solutions, there is always so much of it lost. It dissolves in three or four parts of hot water: It affords, by distillation, the same products as sugar, according to Messrs Rouelle, Vulgamoze, and Scheele. The first of these chemists obtained, by burning a pound of this salt, from 24 to 30 grains of ashes; of which three fourths were muriate of potash, and the remaining fourth part carbonate of potash. On a burning coal, sugar of milk melts, swells, gives out a smell of caramel, and burns like sugar. These properties afforded reason for thinking, that this salt would, like sugar, afford oxalic acid, if treated with nitric acid. Scheele's experiments have confirmed this conjecture: But he observes, that a much more considerable proportion of spirit of nitre is necessary for this purpose, than to produce oxalic acid from common sugar; and that 4 ounces of sugar of milk afford 5 drams of oxalic acid: And he has farther discovered, that the residue of sugar of milk that has been treated with nitric acid, when diluted in water, and filtrated, in order to the evaporation and crystallization of the oxalic acid, leaves on the filter a white powder, which he found to possess the characteristics of a peculiar acid different from the former. This we denominate the *saccho-lactic acid*. The following are its properties, as observed by Scheele: —

This acid is in the form of a white granulated powder. Two drachms of this salt, in a state of considerable purity, on being exposed to heat in a glass retort, melted,

swelled, and turned black. There was sublimated from this matter, a brown salt, the smell of which was a compound of the smell of benzoin with that of amber, and which weighed 35 grains. That sublimate was acid, soluble in alcohol, but not so easily as in water, and burned on the coals. In the receiver, there was found a brown liquor, which possessed none of the characteristics of an oily substance. In the retort, there remained 11 grains of coaly matter. Both carbonic acid, and hydrogenous gas, were disengaged during the distillation. The saccho-lactic acid is scarce soluble in water; for an ounce of boiling water dissolves only six grains of it, and even of that quantity a fourth part is precipitated by cooling.—M. de Morveau says, that this acid effervesces with an hot solution of carbonate of potash. Saccho-lacte of potash, crystallized by cooling, was dissolved in eight times its weight of hot water, and crystallized anew by the cooling of the liquor. Saccho-lacte of soda is susceptible of crystallization, and only five parts of water are requisite to dissolve it. This acid likewise combines with ammoniac; but heat deprives the neutral salt, thus formed, of its volatile base. With barytes, aluminous earth, magnesia, and lime, the saccho-lactic acid forms salts which are almost insoluble. It acts with little energy on metals; with their oxides it forms neutral salts, which are scarce soluble. It precipitates nitrates of mercury, lead, and silver; as also muriate of lead.

When Scheele first made this discovery, he thought, that the white powder deposited by the oxalic acid, obtained from sugar of milk by the nitric acid, was nothing but calcareous oxalate, the formation of which was owing to lime which might possibly be contained in this animal salt; but he was soon undeceived, when, on pouring a small portion of pure oxalic acid into a solution of
sugar

sugar of milk, he found the mixture to afford no precipitate. Yet M. Hermstadt, who, in Crell's Journal, has given two memoirs on sugar of milk, in the second of which he enters into a particular examination of this earthy acid, thinks, notwithstanding Scheele's experiments, that it must be a compound of oxalic acid and lime with a fat matter. But M. de Morveau, examining, with his usual accuracy, the experiments of this chemist, and comparing them with those of Scheele, has shewn, in the new *Dictionnaire Encyclopædique*, that M. Hermstadt has not accomplished his object, and that even the results of his experiments rather confirm than contradict the discoveries of the Swedish chemist. M. de Morveau has himself made several ingenious experiments, which concur to establish the same fact.—To these particulars we may add, that the oxalic and the saccho-lactic acids do not exist ready-formed in sugar of milk; and that this salt contains only the bases which attract oxigene or the acidifying principle from the nitric acid. We may farther observe, that new experiments may, one day, perhaps, shew the saccho-lactic acid to be nothing but a modification of some other vegetable acid; for, every thing tends to prove, that the principles of whey have belonged originally to the vegetables with which the animals that afford it are nourished.

Baron Haller represents sugar of milk as existing in the following proportions, in the milk of the following animals:

Four ounces of sheep's milk, afford from 35 to 37 grains of sugar of milk:

The same quantity of goat's milk	-	from 47 to 49
_____ of cow's milk	-	from 53 to 54
_____ of woman's milk	-	from 58 to 67
_____ of mare's milk	-	from 69 to 70
_____ of afs's milk	-	from 80 to 82

Rouelle has observed, that after the sugar of milk is extracted from the whey of cow's milk, it cools into a sort of jelly; and accordingly believes it to contain gelatinous matter.

The cheese, or caseous part of milk, is formed into a mass, and separated from the other parts of the liquid, by the action of fire, by the acid fermentation to which milk is liable, and by the intermixture of acids. This matter, when well washed, is white and solid, like the albumen of the blood. A gentle heat hardens it. By distillation on a water-bath, it affords an insipid phlegm, subject to putrefaction.

Dried cheese affords, by distillation in a retort, an alkaline phlegm, a ponderous oil, and a considerable proportion of ammoniacal carbonate. Its coaly residue is dense, very difficult to incinerate, and incapable of affording fixed alkali. When treated with nitric acid, it is found to contain lime and phosphoric acid.

Cheese putrefies in a hot temperature: It swells, diffuses a noisome smell, becomes half-fluid, and, in consequence of the disengagement of a strong-smelling and highly mephitic gas, which with difficulty escapes from this viscid matter, is covered over with froth.

Cheese is not soluble in cold water; and hot water hardens it. Scheele has observed, that when it has been precipitated by an acid, boiling water becomes capable of dissolving a part of it.

The alkalis dissolve it: ammoniac especially, when a few drops of it are poured into milk coagulated by an acid, causes the *coagulum* in a short time to disappear.

Concentrated acids also dissolve cheese. The nitric acid disengages azotic gas from it. The vegetable acids do not dissolve it in any sensible degree. The solution of cheese in the mineral acids is precipitated by alkalis;
of

of which, however, too great a quantity dissolves the precipitate again.

The neutral salts, especially muriate of soda, retard the putrefaction of this substance. Alcohol coagulates it.

From these particulars, it appears that cheese is a substance, like the albumen of the blood.

Butter is in part separated from milk by rest, and collected on the surface. But being, in this state, mixed with a good deal of serum and caseous matter, it is separated from these matters by rapid agitation. This is the art of making or churning butter. The serum which swims over churned butter, still retains a portion of that oily substance; it is yellow, sour, and fat, and is called *butter-milk*. What is called *cream*, is a mixture of cheese and butter, skimmed off milk. It is much more difficult to digest than pure milk. A considerable agitation will reduce this substance into froth: in this state, it is called *whipped cream*.

Pure butter is soft and concrete, of a golden yellow colour, sometimes higher, sometimes lighter, and of an agreeable sweet taste. By a gentle heat, it melts; and by cooling, becomes solid. When distilled on a water-bath, it affords an almost insipid phlegm. In the retort, it affords an acid, of a very strong pungent smell; at first, a fluid oil; and afterwards, a concrete coloured oil, of the same pungent smell with the acid. When these products are rectified, the oil is rendered as fluid and volatile as essential oils. The residual coal is but very scanty. The acid which butter affords by distillation, appears to be of the same nature with that which is extracted from grease; of which we will hereafter speak, under the name of the *sebacic acid*. It may also be extracted in neutral salts, by the application of lime, potash, or soda.

Butter, in a hot temperature, easily becomes acid and rancid. Its acid is then disengaged from a latent state, and is found to have a disagreeable taste. Water and alcohol, by dissolving the acid, reduce the butter nearly to its former state. Fixed alkali dissolves butter, and forms a real soap with it.

From this detail of particulars, it appears, that butter is an oily substance, of the same nature with concrete vegetable fixed oils.

Fresh butter is sweet, cooling, and relaxing; but it easily becomes sour, and agrees but with few stomachs. Brown butter, the acid of which is developed, is one of the most unwholesome articles of food, and the most difficult to digest, that can be made use of.

Milk is an aliment both agreeable and useful in a great many cases. It is even one of the most valuable medicines that can be prescribed. In diseases affecting the skin or joints, such as the ring-worm, the gout, &c. it sweetens the acrid humours. It even heals up some ulcers that are not of a very malignant sort. It may be impregnated with the aromatic parts of plants: it is then an excellent medicine for the phthisis pulmonaris. All stomachs are not fit for digesting milk: It is generally troublesome to people who are liable to the heart-burn, from too much acidity in the primary passages: It should be almost always administered with great caution. Milk rendered medicinal, by feeding the animal which affords it on certain substances for that purpose, is often used with success.

The milk of different animals possesses different virtues. Woman's milk is sweet, and highly saccharine, and produces very happy effects in the case of a marasmus. Ass's milk is successfully used for the phthisis pulmonaris, and the gout; it commonly relaxes. Mare's milk is
nearly

nearly of the same nature with that of the ass. Goat's milk is serous, and gently astringent. Cow's milk is thicker, more fat, and more nourishing: it is also not so easily digested; and it is often necessary to qualify it with water, or some aromatic infusion, and that especially when it is found either not to pass easily through the body, or to occasion looseness.

Milk is likewise applied externally as an emollient. It speedily eases pains; and contributes to ripen imposthumes, and gatherings of humour, by accelerating their suppuration. It is applied hot, and in a bladder, to the sore parts.

CHAP.

C H A P. IV.

Of Fat.

THE Fat is a concrete oily matter, contained in the cellular tissue of animals. It is either white or yellowish, and commonly insipid as to both taste and smell. Its solidity, colour, taste, &c. are different in different animals; nay, even in the same animal, as it is older or younger. In the infant, it is white, insipid, and far from solid; in the adult person, firm and yellowish; in the old man, of a deeper colour, very much diversified in its consistency, and generally of a stronger taste.

The fat of man and quadrupeds is consistent, and either white or yellow: The fat of birds is finer, sweeter, more unctuous, and generally less solid: In cetaceous animals, and fishes, the fat is almost fluid, and generally disposed in certain reservoirs, such as the cavity of the cranium, and the vertebræ. It is found, too, in serpents, insects, and worms; but in these animals, it is confined to the viscera in the lower part of the belly, where it is disposed in small lumps: only a very small quantity of it is found on the muscles, and under the skin.

It has been observed, that the fat of frugivorous and herbivorous animals is firm and solid, but that of carnivorous animals more or less fluid. It is, however, to be remarked on this head, that the fat must always be less solid, and less concrete, in a warm living animal, than in a dead carcase, cold, and under dissection.

The fat of an animal is different in its nature in different parts of the body. About the reins, and under the skin, it is solid : It is less so between the muscular fibres, or near the moveable viscera, such as the heart, the stomach, and the intestines. It is more copious in winter than in summer. It seems to contribute to the maintenance of heat in those regions in which it is placed, as is proved by a great variety of facts that have been collected by physiologists. It seems even to contribute to the nourishment of animals, as has been observed of the bear, the marmot, the dormouse, and of all those animals in general which are occasionally constrained to a long abstinence ; for, on such occasions, their grease is, by degrees, melted and wasted away.

Before using grease in the making up of medicines, its chemical properties should be examined : it should be cut into pieces, and the membranes and vessels running through it separated from it : it is next to be plentifully washed with water, and melted with a little water in a new earthen vessel. When the water is evaporated, and the boiling ceases, it may then be poured into another earthen vessel, and suffered to cool.

All the chemical properties of grease have not yet been examined. Nothing but the power of fire, of air, and of some re-agents, on this substance, is known : Yet there is scarce any animal matter with which we need more to be well acquainted, in order that some judgment may be formed of the uses to which it is applicable, of
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which there is nothing certain hitherto known; as well as of the alterations which it is liable to suffer in living bodies.

The fat of any animal is liquified by exposure to a gentle heat, and congealed by cooling. When exposed to a strong heat, with concurrence of air, it diffuses a smoke of a poignant smell, which occasions tears and coughing; and it burns, when exposed to a heat sufficient to volatilize it. It leaves but very little residual coal. Grease distilled on a water-bath, affords a vapid water, of a light animal smell, neither acid nor alkaline, but liable to take, in a short time, a putrid smell, as also to deposit mucilaginous filaments. This phenomenon, which takes place on all water obtained from animal substances by distillation on a water-bath, proves that the water carries off with it some mucilaginous principle to which the alteration must be owing. Animal fat distilled in a retort, affords a phlegm which is at first aqueous, but becomes afterwards strongly acid,—and oil that is partly liquid, partly concrete; and there remains a very small quantity of residual coal, which it is not easy to incinerate, and in which M. Crell found a small portion of calcareous phosphate. These products have an acid smell, lively and pungent, and as strong as that of the sulphureous acid. The acid is of a peculiar nature, and has been carefully examined by Mr Crell; but as it is exceedingly difficult to obtain it by distillation, that chemist employed a much surer and more expeditious process: we will speak of it afterwards. The concrete oil may be rectified by repeated distillation, so as to become highly fluid, volatile, and penetrating,—in a word, so as to exhibit all the characteristics of a genuine, essential or volatile oil. Twenty-eight ounces of human fat afforded Mr Crell twenty ounces, five drachms, and forty grains of fluid oil,—three ounces, three drachms, and

and thirty grains of sebatic acid,—and three ounces, one drachm, and forty grains of bright coal, nearly in the same state with plumbago or carbure of iron, as was remarked by M. de Morveau. In this analysis, there were five drachms and ten grains lost: That loss must have been owing to the water in vapour, and the elastic fluids that were disengaged, as Mr Crell did not make use of any pneumato-chemical apparatus.

Grease is very speedily altered, when exposed to the action of hot air: instead of continuing sweet and inodorous, as when fresh; it becomes strong and pungent in its taste, and absolutely rancid. This alteration appears to be a real fermentation, by which the acid is developed, and placed in a free state. Although this acid, thus developed, seems to be of the same nature with the sebatic acid, I consider not the change as owing solely to the oily part of the grease. The peculiar animal acid, discoverable by a farther analysis, may come in for its share in this alteration. The rancidity of grease may be corrected in two ways: water itself, as has been observed by Mr Pœrner, is capable of carrying off all the acid that it contains; alcohol, according to M. de Machy, has also the same power. This proves, that the acid of rancid grease reduces it into a sort of saponaceous state, in consequence of which it becomes soluble in water and alcohol. Either of these fluids may be therefore confidently employed to restore rancid grease to its original state.

When grease is washed with a great quantity of distilled water, the fluid dissolves a gelatinous matter, the existence of which appears upon evaporation; but the grease still retains a certain portion of that matter intimately combined with it, on which its susceptibility of fermentation depends. Farther, the power of water over
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this animal substance has not yet been accurately ascertained.

Mr Crell, and the chemists of Dijon, have ascertained in what manner alkaline substances act upon animal fat. Pure alkalis have long been known to form a sort of soap with fat. Mr Crell, by treating that soap with a solution of alum, or aluminous sulphate, separated from it oil; and by evaporating the liquor, obtained sebate of potash. This last salt he distilled with concentrated sulphuric acid, which disengaged the sebatic acid. To separate from that acid, the sulphuric acid combined with it, Mr Crell advises to distil it again on a fourth part of the sebate of potash, which must be reserved for the purpose. To ascertain whether it be entirely purified from sulphuric acid, it may be assayed with acetite of lead. If the precipitate now formed be totally soluble in vinegar, it contains no sulphuric acid. The chemists of the Academy of Dijon employ a simpler process for obtaining the sebatic acid: they melt the tallow, and, as it melts, throw into it quicklime: when this mixture becomes cool, they boil it in a large quantity of water: they next filtrate and evaporate the lixivium; and, by this means, obtain calcareous sebate, which is brown and acrid. To purify this salt, it is calcined in a crucible, dissolved, filtrated, and mixed with a just proportion of water containing carbonic acid, in order to separate, by precipitation, the superfluous lime: it is after this evaporated; and affords, by evaporation, a white salt, which is distilled with sulphuric acid, to disengage the sebatic acid.

This acid exists in the butter of cacao, in the white of the whale, and probably in all fixed vegetable oils. The following are its characteristic properties: It is liquid and white, and its smell very lively: it exhales white fumes: it is decomposable by fire, on which it becomes yellow,

yellow, and affords carbonic acid : it converts blue colours to an high red : it unites with water in any proportion : with lime, it forms a crystallizable salt ; with potash and soda, salts that crystallize in needles, and remain fixed in the fire : it appears to act with the same powers as the syrupous acid on siliceous stones, and on glass. In union with the nitric acid, it dissolves gold ; it acts upon mercury and silver ; it precipitates nitrate and acetite of lead ; it decomposes tartarite of potash, by precipitating the tartareous acidulum, or cream of tartar ; it also decomposes alkaline acetites. If strongly heated with sulphuric salts, the acid is separated in a sulphureous state ; it precipitates nitrate of mercury and silver. A number of these properties had induced Mr Crell to think, that the sebatic acid might possibly be nothing else but a modification of the muriatic acid ; but M. de Morveau observes, that, as it decomposes corrosive muriate of mercury, that property alone is enough to distinguish it from the muriatic acid.

Mineral acids, in a concentrated state, alter and burn grease. The sulphuric acid turns it brown ; the nitric acid gives it a lemon-yellow colour.

Sulphur combines very easily with fat, and forms with it a combination that has not been yet sufficiently examined.

Grease is capable of dissolving certain metals. It is united with mercury in the preparation known by the name of *mercurial pomatum*. To effect this union, all that is necessary is, to triturate the metal with bear's grease, or the finest part of the fat of any other animal, for a considerable time. By this operation, the mercury is divided, attenuated, and united with the grease so intimately as to give it a slate colour, and no longer appears, therefore, in a metallic form. This union, however, is partly nothing but an extreme division ; or, at least,

least, only a part of the mercury is dissolved by the sebaceous acid; for a magnifier shews the globules of the mercury still existing naked even in the best-prepared ointment.

The three metals the most liable to alteration by fat, are, lead, copper, and iron. The oxides of these metals, too, combine with it very readily. This is what makes it so dangerous, to suffer meats that have been prepared with fat to stand for any time in copper dishes, or even in earthen dishes glazed with lead-glass.—In combinations of animal fat with the oxides of metals, it is observed, that the oxides pass easily, with the help of heat, into the metallic state. This is owing to the combination of the hydrogenous gas disengaged from the grease, with the oxigené of the oxides.

Almost all vegetable matters may be combined with fat. Extracts and mucilages render it, in some degree, soluble in water, or at least contribute to its suspension in that fluid. It combines with oils in any proportion, communicating to them a part of its own consistency.

—These are all the chemical properties which this substance is known to possess. From considering them, it appears, that grease is nearly of the same nature with butter, being a fixed oil concentered by a discernible quantity of acid, with oxigené.

As to its uses in the animal œconomy;—besides maintaining heat in the parts around which it is disposed, and giving an agreeable plumpness and roundness to the form, with a whiteness to the skin; Macquer thinks it likewise serves to absorb the acids when too copious in the animal body, and regards it as the reservoir of these salts. We are at least certain, that when too much acid is introduced into an animal body, it dissolves and melts the fat,

fat, by communicating to it, no doubt, a saponaceous character, and rendering it more soluble.

Excess, and, still more, alterations of the fat, occasion fatal distempers in the animal œconomy, the symptoms and effects of which are far from having been yet examined with sufficient accuracy. Lorry has studied them with particular attention; and has shewn, that there subsists a striking analogy between this substance and the bile.

Fat is used as a seasoning, and is nourishing to people who have stout stomachs. In medicine, it is applied externally, as softening and calming; it enters into the composition of ointments and plasters.

The marrow contained in the long bones, exhibits the same properties with the fat; but it has not yet been analysed with such accuracy as might enable us to describe its characteristic properties.

C H A P. V.

Of the Bile and the Biliary Calculi.

THE bile or gall is a fluid, of a green colour, more or less yellowish, of a very bitter taste, and of a nauseous smell, that is separated from the blood in a glandulous part of the viscera, universally known by the name of the *liver*. In most animals, excepting insects and worms, it is collected in a membranous reservoir beside the liver, called the *gall-bladder*. The human bile has been but little examined hitherto, on account of its being so difficult to procure a sufficient quantity of it. It is on the cow's that chemical experiments have been made.

Its consistency is nearly gelatinous or slimy : it runs into threads, like a tolerably clear syrup : when shaken, it froths like soap.

When distilled on a water-bath, it affords a phlegm that is neither acid nor alkaline, but liable to pass, in a certain space of time, into a putrid state. I have often observed in this phlegm a singular property : I have found it to exhale a very discernible sweet smell, nearly
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the same with that of musk or amber. This experiment has been repeated a great many times in my laboratory. It succeeds best, in the distillation of bile that has been kept for some days, and is a little altered. When all the water that can be obtained from the bile on a water-bath is separated from it, it is then found to be in the state of an extract, more or less dry, and of a deep embrowned green colour. This extract of bile attracts moisture from the atmosphere: It is very tenacious and pitchy; it may be entirely dissolved in water. By distillation in a retort, it affords a yellowish alkaline phlegm, an empyreumatic animal oil, a good deal of ammoniacal carbonate, an elastic fluid mixed with carbonic acid, and hydrogenous gas: After this operation, there remains a coal of a considerable bulk, which it is easier to incinerate than any that we have yet mentioned.—According to M. Cadet, who, in the year 1767, presented to the Academy a most valuable Memoir on the Analysis of the Bile, this coal contains carbonate of soda, an animal earth, and a small portion of iron. It is to be observed, that the distillation of this substance must be slowly conducted; for it swells considerably. As to the salt, of which M. Cadet takes notice, as existing in the coal of the bile, and thinks it to be of the same nature with sugar of milk, it is easy to see, that such a matter could not resist the violent heat necessary to reduce the bile into a carbonaceous state.

In a temperature of between 65° and 85° of heat, the bile is speedily altered: Its smell becomes more nauseous; its colour is altered and destroyed; whitish mucilaginous flakes are precipitated from it; it loses its viscosity, and soon after acquires a foetid pungent smell: When nearly putrefied, its smell becomes sweet, like that of amber. My pupil, M. Vauquelin, has discovered that

the bile, after being heated on a water-bath, and thickened a little, will remain unaltered several months, in the same way as vinegar after being boiled. He has likewise discovered, that altered bile, which exhales a foetid smell, and is of a brown colour, dirty, and turbid, loses its smell when heated; and that some concrete albuminous flakes are then separated from it.

The bile dissolves very well in water. Its colour then changes to a yellow, which is darker or brighter according as the quantity of the water added is smaller or greater.

All the acids decompose it in the same way as soaps: the combination formed is a coagulum. This mixture, filtrated and evaporated, affords a neutral salt, formed of the acid that has been employed, and soda. This beautiful experiment, for which we are indebted to M. Cadet, proves the existence of soda in the bile. The matter that rests on the filter, in these instances, is thick, viscid, very bitter, and highly inflammable: its colour and consistency are not always the same, but vary with the nature of the acid employed, and the degree in which it is concentrated. I have observed, that the sulphuric acid gives it a deep green colour,—the nitric acid, a little concentrated, a bright yellow colour,—and the muriatic acid, a very beautiful light green; but these colours vary greatly with the state of the bile, and that of the acids. This precipitate is a substance similar in its nature to resins: On burning coals, it swells, melts, and takes fire: in alcohol, it is totally dissolved; and water precipitates it, like the resinous juices. The action of acids on the bile shews, therefore, that this substance is a true-soap, formed of an oil nearly of a resinous nature, in union with soda. They prove also, that there exists in this animal liquor, a certain quantity of albuminous

albuminous matter. That matter is the cause of the coagulation of the bile by fire, by acids, by alcohol, and by putrefaction.

Neutral salts, mixed with the bile, prevent it from passing into a state of putrefaction.

Solutions of metals are decomposed by the bile, which they likewise decompose. The fixed alkali of the bile unites with the acid of the solution; and the coloured oil of the bile is precipitated in combination with the metallic oxide.

The bile combines readily with oils, and takes them up, as well as soap, from stuffs.

This fluid is entirely dissolved in alcohol; which separates from it the albuminous matter. The tincture of the bile is not decomposed by water; which shews this substance to be a true animal soap, equally soluble in aqueous and spiritous menstrea. *Æther* very easily dissolves it.

Vinegar decomposes the bile, as well as the mineral acids. The liquor, filtrated and evaporated, affords acetite of soda in regular crystals.

From these several facts it follows, that the bile is a compound, consisting of a good deal of water, a peculiar aroma, an albuminous mucilage, an oil of a resinous nature, and carbonate of soda. *M. Cadet* relates, that he found it to contain a salt, which he thinks to be of the same nature with sugar of milk; and the existence of that salt has been since confirmed by *M. Van Bochaute*. But it is probable, that this pretended saline substance is rather analogous to the bright, crystalline, foliated substance which has been found by *M. Poulletier* in the biliary calculi of the human body, and of which we are just going to speak.

The bile, considered as it exists in the animal œconomy, is a juice which seems to promote digestion. Its saponaceous nature enables it to make oily matters combine with water. Its bitter taste shews that it stimulates the intestines, and promotes their action on aliments. Roux, a celebrated physician and chemist of the Faculty of Paris, whose premature death has been no inconsiderable loss to both these sciences, thought that the principal use of the bile was to carry off from the body the colouring part of the blood. It appears to be decomposed in the duodenum by the acids which almost always exist or are developed in the organs of digestion. It is certain, at least, that it is greatly altered, especially in colour, when it forms a part of the excrements. Good physicians, therefore, often draw very important inductions from an inspection of these matters, concerning the state of the bile in the intestines through which it is conducted, and of the liver by which it is separated.

The extract of the gall of the ox, and of several other animals, is used as an excellent stomachic. It supplies the deficiency, and quickens the inactivity of the bile: it strengthens the tone of the stomach, giving it, when weakened, new vigour to perform its functions. But it must be very cautiously used; for it is acrid and heating: it should always, therefore, be given in very small doses, especially to people whose nerves are delicate and easily irritated. Some ascribe peculiar virtues to the gall of fishes; but the notion has not been confirmed by experience, and is therefore to be ranked among the too numerous class of those prejudices which disgrace the *materia medica*.

Of the Biliary Calculi.

WHENEVER the bile of the human body is, by any cause, detained in the vesicle, especially when it is detained by spasmodic contractions, as in cases of melancholy, or hysterics, long-continued grief, &c. it becomes thick, and produces brown concretions, which are light, inflammable, and of a very bitter taste, and are called *biliary calculi*. Those concretions are often very numerous; they distend the bladder, and sometimes fill it up entirely. They occasion violent hepatic colics, vomitings, jaundice, &c. I distinguish them into three varieties: Those which I include under the first variety, are brown, blackish, irregular, tuberculous, and seem to consist of lumps: Those of the second variety, are harder, brown, yellowish, or greenish, in concentric layers, and generally covered with a dry, uniform, grey crust;—their form is commonly angular and polyhædral: The third variety consists of white, ovoidal concretions, more or less irregular in their form, covered with a whitish crust, scarce ever equally thick all over, in layers of a spathose appearance, or in transparent, crystalline plates, generally radiated from the centre to the circumference.

The biliary calculi of the second variety have been examined by M. Poulletier de la Salle. He has observed them to be soluble in alcohol. On digesting some of them in strong spirit of wine, he remarked the liquor, at the end of a certain time, to be full of minute particles, brilliant and crystalline, and with all the appearances of a salt. The experiments which he made on this substance led him to suspect that it might be an oily salt, in some of its properties resembling the acid salt

with which, under the name of flowers of benzoin, we are already acquainted; but it would rather appear that its nature is hitherto unknown. That philosopher could find this salt only in the biliary calculi of the human body, not in those of the ox. This very singular fact needs confirmation; for M. Vauquelin and I have found a small quantity of lamellated matter in the biliary calculi of the ox.

M. Poulletier de la Salle's discovery has thrown light on some facts that were collected by the Royal Society of Medicine, concerning the stones formed in the gall-bladder. That Society received from their correspondents, some biliary calculi belonging to the third of the above-mentioned varieties, which had not then been described. They consisted of masses of transparent, crystalline plates, precisely of the same form with the matter discovered by M. Poulletier de la Salle. It even appears, that a large proportion of these crystals may be formed of the bile of the human body; for the Medical Society have, in their collection of calculi, a gall-bladder entirely full of this transparent saline concretion. I have two others of the same kind, which I received from my colleagues, Messrs le Preux and Hallé. It is much to be wished that the nature of these newly discovered calculi were examined: researches on this head cannot but be of high service to the science of medicine.

Soap, a mixture of æther and oil of turpentine, &c. have been proposed as fit solvents for these biliary calculi. It is worthy of observation, that they are not found in the gall-bladder of the ox, unless after dry seasons, and a scarcity of fresh fodder, and disappear again in Spring and Summer, when those animals are supplied with plenty of green, succulent vegetables. Butchers are well acquainted with this fact; they know, that
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Between the month of November and the month of March these stones are found in the animals, and from March to November cease to be found. This is a sufficient proof of the power of the saponaceous juices of plants to dissolve the biliary calculi. Yet, it is not to be thought that medicines, however active and volatile, can be conveyed into the gall-bladder in sufficient quantity to act there with the same energy in dissolving the biliary calculi as in our experiments. In my opinion, the cessation of spasm, and consequently the dilatation of the biliary canal, is the true cause of the good effects of the æthereal mixtures that have been proposed by M. Durande, which I have elsewhere recommended to be made up without oil of turpentine;—with the more confidence, because it is evident that the oil is both very heating, and produces no useful effect but that of diminishing the volatility of the æther; and it has been already proved by some observations, that yolks of eggs, and, no doubt, many other substances, will serve the purpose as well, without the same unfavourable effects.

C H A P. VI.

Of the Saliva, the Pancreatic Juice, and the Gastric Juice.

ANATOMISTS and Physiologists have observed a great resemblance between the saliva and the pancreatic juice. The salivary glands, and the pancreas, are in fact precisely of the same structure; and the humours prepared by both these organs, appear to serve the same purpose. The human species and quadrupeds are the only animals that have saliva; at least, scarce any other animals have yet been found to possess salivary glands.

Chemists have not yet done any thing accurate on either of these fluids. The only reason that can be assigned for this, is its being so very difficult to procure even a very small quantity of either. We know only, that the saliva is a very fluid juice, separated by the parotides and many other glands, which is constantly flowing into the mouth, but most copiously during the act of mastication. This humour appears to be of a saponaceous nature, and impregnated with air, which renders it frothy. When evaporated to dryness, it leaves

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but little residue : And yet concretions of the saliva are sometimes formed in the ducts by which it is conveyed into the mouth. It appears to contain an ammoniacal salt ; for, lime and caustic fixed alkalis disengage from it a poignant urinous smell.—Pringle, from experiments which he made, concluded the saliva to be very septic, and that it promoted digestion, by occasioning a commencement of putridity in the masticated aliments. Mr Spallanzani, and some other modern naturalists, think, again, that it possesses, in an eminent degree, the power of retarding and stopping putrefaction.

The gastric juice is separated from the small glands or extremities of the arteries that open into the internal tunic of the stomach. The œsophagus supplies also a small portion of it, especially in the inferior region : in that region, many birds are observed to have very large glands that open into very discernible excretory ducts. M. Vicq d'Azyr has carefully described those which appear in the stork, &c.

Some modern naturalists have been at great pains in examining the gastric juice. Messrs Spallanzani, Scopoli, Monch, Brugnatelli, and Carminati, some years ago, examined the properties of this liquor. They procured it from the stomachs of sheep and calves, by opening them after the animals had fasted for some time. They obtained it from carnivorous and gallinaceous birds, by making them swallow metal tubes, perforated with holes, and filled with very fine sponge. Mr Spallanzani examined the gastric juice of his own stomach, by making himself vomit, and by swallowing tubes of wood filled with different substances, that he might judge of the effects of the gastric juice upon each of them. Experiments with tubes had been before tried by M. de Reaumur. Lastly, M. Goffe of Geneva has had the courage to make himself vomit many times, by a certain process of his own, which consists in swal-
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lowing air.—From all these modern observations, the gastric juice appears to possess the following properties :

This juice is the principal agent in digestion : It converts the aliments into a sort of uniform soft paste : It acts on the stomach even after the death of the animal : It acts as a solvent ; but, what distinguishes it from all other solvents, is, that it acts indifferently on animal and vegetable substances, without shewing any preference, or any stronger affinity with the one than with the other. Far from having a tendency to promote fermentation, it is one of the most powerful antiseptics known. As to its intimate nature,—it appears, from the experiments of the above-mentioned philosophers, to be different in different classes of animals. According to Mr Brugnatelli, the gastric juice of birds of prey and granivorous birds is very bitter, and consists of a disengaged acid, resin, animal matter, and common salt : That of ruminating quadrupeds is very aqueous, turbid, and saltish ; it contains ammoniac, an animal extract, and common salt. M. de Morveau having digested in water, some parts of the interior tunic of the stomach of a calf, found them to display an acid character. Mr Spallanzani thinks this character to be owing to the aliments on which the animal feeds : he never found the gastric juice of carnivorous animals, acid ; that of granivorous animals, he found always so. M. Goffe experienced the same thing in himself, after living long on raw vegetables. Mr Brugnatelli thinks, that the white matter of the excrements of carnivorous animals contains phosphoric acid ; but M. de Morveau observes, that his experiments are not conclusive. Mr Scopoli found in it ammoniacal muriate ; and suspects, that the muriatic acid is produced by the operation of the vital powers of animals : But he has no decisive fact to support this opinion ; on the contrary,

trary, every fact concurs to evince that it proceeds from the aliments. Messrs Macquart and Vauquelin have found the gastric juice of the ox, the calf, and the sheep, to possess invariably an acid character ; but from the accurate experiments which they have made, it appears to derive this character from the phosphoric acid in a naked state. They have observed, too, that those juices alter and putrefy even very speedily. The gastric juice of carnivorous animals appears to possess antiseptic powers in a more eminent degree.

From all these facts taken together, it may be inferred,

1. That the gastric juice is as yet but imperfectly known :
2. That it appears to be different in different classes of animals, and modified according to the diversity of the aliments on which they live :
3. That we have yet no proof of its being a peculiar acid, or that we should acknowledge the existence of a gastric acid :
4. That its most remarkable properties are, a very extraordinary solvent power, which acts with sufficient energy even on bony and metallic substances, and is even said to be capable of attacking siliceous stones,—with a sort of indifference on what matter it acts, and the same affinity with all matters.

Its extraordinary antiseptic power, which it communicates to all bodies that are mixed with it, and which even stops putrefaction in substances in which that process is already begun, has been more attended to than any of its other properties. Messrs Carminati, Jurine, and Toggia, have applied the gastric juice to wounds. Mr Carminati has even administered it internally ; and they all agree with regard to its antiseptic powers. But the experiments of Messrs Macquart and Vauquelin, above mentioned, which were made in my own laboratory, prove, that the gastric juice of ruminating animals possesses no such properties.

C H A P. VII.

Of the Humours or Animal Matters that have not yet been examined; such as Sweat, the Mucus of the Nose, the Cerumen; Tears, the Gum of the Eye, the Seminal Fluid, and the Excrements.

THERE are still many animal fluids and matters that have not been examined: And therefore, rather with a view to engage young physicians in such new and useful researches, than to explain their nature, we shall say something of the humour which transpires by the pores,—the sweat, the mucus of the nostrils, the cerumen of the ears, the tears, the gummy matter of the eyes, the seminal fluid, and the excrements.

Physicians have discovered a great resemblance between the humour which transpires by the pores, and the urine. They know, that on many occasions, both these excretions serve the same purpose; and are therefore naturally led to consider the vaporous fluid which transpires by the pores as of the same nature with urine. In the practice of medicine, its qualities are observed to be

be subject to variation : Its smell is faint, aromatic, alkaline, or sour ; its consistency, sometimes glutinous, thick, tenacious ; and it leaves a residue on the skin : It generally communicates to linen-cloth, a yellow colour, of various shades. I have twice observed it to communicate to linen, and woollen stuffs, a sparkling blue colour. M. Berthollet affirms, that sweat reddens blue paper ; and observes, that this phenomenon takes place chiefly on parts affected with the gout. He takes it to contain phosphoric acid. It has hitherto been found impossible to collect a sufficient quantity of this excrementitious humour, for examining its properties carefully. A great many experiments, therefore, remain to be made on this matter, which only accidental and peculiar circumstances can enable naturalists to undertake and prosecute.

The humour prepared by the membrane of Schneider, which is thrown out of the nose by sneezing, highly merits the attention of physicians. It is a sort of thick mucilage, either white or coloured ; in certain affections, especially in catarrhs, more or less fluid or consistent. Nobody has yet examined it.

The same is the case with that sort of greenish yellow, or brown matter which gathers in the auditory canal, becomes thick, and is, from its consistency, known by the name *cerumen*. It is very bitter : it seems to be of a resinous nature : it is known to become sometimes sufficiently concrete to close up the auditory canal, and hinder sound from entering it freely : it seems to be somewhat of the same nature with the inflammable matter of the bile.

The same is to be said of the tears which are prepared in a certain gland, situated near the external angle of the socket of the eye, and are designed by nature to maintain the moisture and suppleness of the exterior parts.

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This liquor is clear, limpid, and discernibly saltish; it sometimes runs very copiously: In the ordinary state of the human frame, it runs by degrees into the nostrils, and seems to serve the purpose of moistening the mucus. Most of the authors that have spoken of this liquor of tears, particularly Pierre Petit, a physician in Paris, who, about the end of the last century, published a treatise on tears, consider them as being nearly pure water. The gum, or humour that adheres to the borders of the eye-lids, and seems to be separated by the glands of Meibomius, is not better known than the tears.

The chemical nature of the seminal fluid has not been more particularly examined than that of those fluids above-mentioned. From the very few observations that have been made upon it, it appears to be nearly of the same nature with animal mucilages, to be liable to become fluid either by cold or heat, and to be reducible by the action of fire, into a dry friable substance.

On this head, anatomical and microscopical observations have gone much farther than chemical experiments. From these it appears, that the seminal fluid is a sort of ocean, with small round bodies swimming about in it with great rapidity of motion. These are, by some, considered as living animals intended for the reproduction of the species, and, by others, as organic particles which unite to produce a living animal. A late observer has likewise discovered, with the microscope, crystals that are formed during the cooling and evaporation of the seminal fluid. It must be confessed, however, these fine experiments have as yet contributed nothing to the advancement of the science, and have only given ground for some ingenious hypotheses.

The aliments which animals swallow, contain a great quantity of matter that cannot afford them nourishment, and is evacuated

evacuated from the intestines in a solid form. The excrements are coloured by a portion of the bile, which they carry off with them. The foetid odour which they exhale, is owing to their having begun to putrefy in their passage through the intestines. No chemist but Homberg has examined these matters. He observed the phlegm obtained from the excrements, by distillation on a water-bath, to have a nauseous smell: by washing and evaporation, he obtained from them a salt which melted like nitre, and kindled voluntarily in close vessels. This matter, by distillation in a retort, afforded the same products as other animal substances. From putrid excrements he obtained an oil, destitute of colour and smell, which did not gratify his expectations of seeing mercury converted by it into silver.

It is to be observed, that the fecal matter examined by Homberg, was that of men fed upon coarse bread and Champagne wine; which had been required as a condition necessary to the success of the alchemical experiment he had been directed to make. The food must doubtless peculiarize, in some degree, the nature of the excrements, as these are nothing but the residue of the food.

C H A P. VIII.

Of Urine.

URINE is a transparent, excrementitial fluid, of a lemon-yellow colour, of a peculiar smell, of a saline taste, separated from the blood by two glandulous viscera that are called the reins, and from these conveyed into a reservoir universally known by the name of the bladder, in which it remains for some time : it is a sort of lixivium impregnated with the acrid matters of the animal humours, which, if too long retained in the body, might obstruct and disorder the functions of the system.

Urine is a solution of a great number of salts, and two extractive matters. It varies in quantity and in qualities, according to circumstances. That of the human species, which we propose to examine more particularly, differs from the urine of quadrupeds. Among other classes of animals the differences are still greater. The state of the stomach, and particularly the state of the humours, produce an infinite diversity of changes on this fluid ; to ascertain and estimate which, a long series of experiments would

would be requisite, which have, as yet, only been pointed out as necessary. Here, therefore, we shall speak only of human urine as it is emitted in a state of health.

This fluid is, by good physicians, distinguished into two sorts. The one called crude urine, flows off soon after meals: it is clear, and almost entirely without taste or smell: it is far from containing so many different principles as the other. It, again, is called urine of the blood, or of concoction, and is not emitted till after digestion: it is separated from the blood by the reins; whereas the other species appears to filtrate, in part, from the stomach and the intestines, directly into the bladder, thro' the cellular tissue, or the absorbent vessels.

The state of the health, and more especially the disposition of the nerves, modify the urine in a singular manner. After hysteric or hypocondriac fits, it flows copiously; it is then inodorous, insipid, and colourless. Diseases of the bones and joints have considerable influence on this animal lixivium. It often deposits a great quantity of matter, apparently earthy, but which, as we shall hereafter shew, consists of lithic acid, and calcareous phosphate. The sediment of the urine of those who have the gout is of this sort. Physicians, particularly Herissant and Morand, have observed, that when the bones are altered or softened, the urine deposits a good deal of this matter. It even appears, that the urine of people in a good state of health deposits a quantity of this matter, which constitutes the basis of bones; which is probably all of it that is formed in the body above what is requisite for the nutrition and reparation of those organs.

Many of the articles of food communicate some peculiar properties to the urine. Turpentine and asparagus give it, the former a smell of violets, the latter a very

foetid smell. The urine of people of weak stomachs retains a smell of their food: bread, garlic, onions, soup, and all vegetables, communicate each its peculiar smell to the urine. From these particulars, it appears, that an observation of the phænomena which urine exhibits, may be of considerable use to the physician in the practice of his art. We must, however, beware of imagining that, from simple inspection of the urine, it is possible for the physician to judge of the disease and sex of the sick person, and of the proper remedies; as some empirics pretend to do.

The urine of the human species, considered with respect to its chemical properties, is a solution of a great many different substances. Some of these are salts, similar to those of minerals, and, as Macquer thinks, proceed from the aliments, without alteration. Others of them are matters of the same nature with the extractive principles of vegetables: And lastly, some appear peculiar to animals, and even to urine;—at least, have not been found in any notable quantity among the products of the other kingdoms of nature, nor even in any other animal substances but urine. After explaining the processes employed to extract those different matters from urine, we shall give the history of such of them as are peculiar to the fluid, and therefore have not before come under our notice.

Urine used to be considered as an alkaline liquor, or lixivium; but M. Berthollet has remarked, that it always contains a greater quantity of phosphoric acid than of any other salt, and reddens the tincture of turnsole*. This physician has observed, that the urine of gouty people

* Coldevillars had before asserted, in his *Course of Surgery*, that urine constantly reddened the tincture of turnsole.

people always contains less acid salt than that of people in a state of perfect health; and that, during the fit of the gout, their urine is still less acid than at other times. Hence he conjectures, that in gouty people the phosphoric acid is not evacuated by the urine, as in people in perfect health; that it loses its way, (if the expression may be here used) and, being conveyed to the joints, there occasions irritation and pain. This excess of acid in the urine appears to maintain in solution in it, a quantity of calcareous phosphate.

Scheele thinks the acid of urine not to be altogether phosphoric acid, but partly the same with the acid of the calculus in the human bladder, which we call the lithic acid. This acid being susceptible of concretion and crystallization, forms, according to that celebrated chemist, the red crystals that are deposited in urine, as well as the brick-coloured precipitate observed in the urine of feverish persons. The tephaceous concretions on the joints of gouty persons, appear to be of the same nature with the calculus, that is, to consist chiefly of lithic acid.

Fresh urine, distilled in the water-bath, affords a large quantity of a phlegm which is neither acid nor alkaline, but soon putrefies. As this phlegm contains nothing peculiar, urine is commonly evaporated by naked fire. In proportion as the water, which composes more than seven eighths of this animal humour, is evaporated, the urine assumes a brown colour: there is separated from it a pulverulent matter of an earthy appearance, which has been taken for calcareous sulphate, but is really a mixture of calcareous phosphate with lithic acid. This salt is of the same nature with the basis of bones, and the matter of the calculus in the bladder. When the

urine has acquired the consistency of clear syrup, it is then filtrated, and removed into a cool place. In the course of a certain time, it deposits saline crystals, consisting of muriate of soda, with two peculiar saline substances. These last salts are known by the name of *fusible salts, native salts of urine, alkaline phosphates, &c.*: their properties shall be examined in the following chapter. Several different quantities of those crystals may be obtained, by repeated evaporation and crystallization. In these successive evaporations, a certain quantity of muriate of soda and muriate of potash is crystallized. When the urine ceases to afford saline matter, it remains in the state of a very thick brown fluid, a sort of mother water, holding in solution two peculiar extractive substances. By evaporating this fluid to the consistency of a soft extract, and treating the residue with alcohol, Rouelle the younger discovered, that one portion was soluble in alcohol, but another suffered no solution in it. The first of these matters he has called *saponaceous matter*; the second *extractive matter*.

The saponaceous substance is somewhat saline, and susceptible of crystallization. It is difficult to make it dry; and, even when dry, it attracts moisture from the atmosphere. In the retort, it affords a quantity of ammoniacal carbonate equal to more than half its weight, a little oil, and some ammoniacal muriate: its residue gives a green tinge to syrup of violets.

The extractive substance, which is soluble in water, though not in alcohol, dries as easily in the water-bath as the extracts of plants: it is brown, and not so liable to deliquesce as the former salt: it affords, by distillation, all the usual products of animal matters. Such, according to Rouelle, are the characteristic and distinctive properties of these two substances which form the extract of urine.

urine. To these particulars we may add, that this celebrated chemist obtained from an ounce to an ounce and a half of extract from a pint of urine of concoction; whereas, the same quantity of crude urine afforded him only one, two, or three grains.

If, instead of separating this extract of urine into two distinct matters by alcohol, we distil it altogether by naked fire,—it affords a good deal of ammoniacal carbonate, an animal oil, and a little phosphorus. Its coal contains a little muriate of soda, or common salt. This analysis of urine shews, therefore, that the fluid consists of a large proportion of water, both phosphoric acid and lithic acid in a disengaged state, muriate of soda, calcareous phosphate, phosphate of soda, and ammoniacal phosphate, and two peculiar extractive matters which colour the fluid. With respect to the dark colour which it acquires in various diseases, especially in all cases in which the bile is affected, I have discovered that it is owing to the resin of the bile; and that the extract of this urine, thus altered in colour, when dissolved by alcohol, (that portion of it which is soluble in this menstruum) is precipitated from it by water.

Urine, exposed to air, is altered the sooner, the hotter the atmosphere. Sediments are first formed in it simply by cooling: several saline matters are crystallized at the surface, and at the bottom of the liquor; and among these, generally, a reddish salt, which appears to be of the same nature with the calculus in the bladder. Nobody has observed the spontaneous alterations of this excrementitious fluid with more attention than my colleague, M. Hallé. In the decomposition which urine suffers when left to itself, he has distinguished several different periods at which sediments or crystals of a different nature are found deposited; as also the changes which the
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fluid undergoes, in consequence of depositing those sediments and crystals. We cannot enter here into a detail of these particulars, relative to the changes of the fluid, and the matters which it deposites; but the reader may find them accurately described in a valuable Memoir, inserted among the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Medicine for the year 1779. We shall only mention here the principal alterations which urine suffers. Soon after it becomes cool, its smell alters, becomes more pungent, and even ammoniacal; its colouring part is changed, and separated from the rest of the liquor: at length the alkaline smell goes off, and is succeeded by another, not so pungent, but more disagreeable and nauseous: at last the decomposition is completely effected. Rouelle, the younger, has observed, that crude serous urine does not putrefy so fast; that its colour, when it is altered, is greatly different from that of urine of concoction; and that at last it is covered over with mouldiness, like the juices of vegetables, and the solutions of animal jelly. M. Hallé has observed some urines to become highly acid before passing into a state of putrid decomposition. Urine evaporated, after being suffered to putrefy for a year or more, affords fusible salt, as well as fresh urine; but it contains much more phosphoric acid in a naked state, and effervesces with ammoniacal carbonate: a part of its ammoniac has been volatilized by the putrefaction. When it is evaporated, the salt that is deposited on the sides of the vessel is highly acid; and to obtain a larger quantity of it, Rouelle, the younger, directs to add ammoniacal carbonate, till the effervescence entirely cease, and the acid be completely saturated.

Quicklime and dry fixed alkalis instantaneously decompose the saline principles contained in urine. Nothing more is necessary, than to pour caustic potash or soda, or

to cast quicklime into fresh urine, in order to make it yield an insufferable putrid ammoniacal smell. It is by decomposing the ammoniacal phosphate, that these substances produce such a smell. M. Berthollet has discovered, that lime-water produces, in fresh urine, a precipitate from which phosphorus may be obtained. This phenomenon is occasioned by the union of the lime-water with the excess of phosphoric acid : And the precipitate is formed, 1. Of the calcareous phosphate that naturally exists in urine, and was maintained in solution only in consequence of there being an excess of phosphoric acid; 2. Of new calcareous phosphate, formed by the union of the lime that has been added with the acid that was before in a state of freedom. M. Berthollet having observed, that caustic ammoniac likewise precipitates calcareous phosphate from urine, by neutralizing the naked phosphoric acid by which that salt was held in solution, remarks, that the weight of this precipitate, compared with that which is produced by lime-water, indicates the quantity of naked phosphoric acid contained in the urine; for, in fact, the ammoniacal phosphate formed on this occasion remains dissolved in the fluid, whereas the calcareous phosphate produced by lime-water is precipitated, as insoluble, at the same time with the calcareous phosphate naturally existing in the urine.

The acids produce no effects on fresh urine: but they speedily deprive putrid urine of its smell; and they, in the same manner, destroy the smell of the sediments which it deposits in that state.

Urine decomposes many solutions of metals. Lemery has made known, under the name of *the rose-coloured precipitate*, a magma, of a rose colour, that is formed by pouring the nitric solution of mercury into urine. That precipitate is formed partly by the muriatic acid, and partly

partly by the phosphoric acid contained in the fluid. M. Brongniart has observed, that sometimes this preparation takes fire by friction, and that it burns with rapidity on burning coals,—phænomena which he ascribes to its containing a small portion of phosphorus.

Such is the state of our present knowledge concerning the chemical properties of urine. Much yet remains to be done, before we can obtain all the information concerning this matter that analysis is capable of furnishing. The several sediments that have been observed in urine, and so accurately distinguished by M. Hallé, should be analysed : The red or transparent saline concretions that are formed in it, and have been taken by Scheele for lithic acid, should also be analysed ; and in like manner, the copious sediment which urine affords after fits of the gout, from persons afflicted with the stone, &c.

We shall, however, in the following chapter, examine the several saline products that urine affords, with the properties of which physicians ought to make themselves well acquainted.

C H A P. IX.

Of the Ammoniacal Phosphate, the Phosphate of Soda, and the Stone in the Bladder, or the Lithic Acid.

WE have seen, that urine contains certain peculiar salts. Those are combinations of phosphoric acid with ammoniac, soda, lime, and the acid base of the stone in the bladder. Continuing to use, for these substances, the methodical denominations already mentioned, we shall successively examine the ammoniacal phosphate, the phosphate of soda, and the lithic acid. As to the calcareous phosphate, we shall describe its properties under the article *Bones*.

The salt obtained from evaporated urine by cooling and rest, has been called in general *fusible salt*; because, as we shall immediately see, it melts in the fire: it has been also called *essential salt of urine*, *microcosmic salt*. In this primary state, it is a mixture of ammoniacal phosphate and muriate, and of muriate of soda, contaminated with an extractive matter. Several chemists, particularly Margraf, have been of opinion, that, to avoid the mixture of marine salt, the urine must be suffered to putrefy; and the
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marine salt is, by the putrefaction of the urine, changed into phosphate. That opinion has been since proved to be false: 120 pints of fresh urine afford, according to Margraf, about four ounces of ammoniacal phosphate, and two ounces of phosphate of soda.

It is not easy to effect an entire separation of these substances of which the fusible salt consists, that is obtained by a first crystallization, and was considered by Schockwitz, Le Mort, Boerhaave, Henckel and Schloffer, as a single salt. To accomplish this separation, it has been recommended to dissolve the salt in hot water, evaporate, and crystallize it. But Rouelle the younger, and the Duke of Chaulnes, are the only chemists that have mentioned a very great and uncommon difficulty with which this process is attended: Most of the salt is carried off by the heat of the solution and evaporation, and about three fourths of it is lost. The Duke of Chaulnes has given a process for purifying it with as little loss as possible; which consists in filtrating the solution, and leaving it to cool in close-stopped vessels. By either of these manipulations, there is obtained, first, a salt crystallized in rhomboidal tetrahædral prisms, very much compressed, which is ammoniacal phosphate; and, above these first crystals, another salt, in cubes, or rather oblong square tables, very different from the former salt in shape; this, again, is phosphate of soda. This last salt, as has been remarked by Rouelle the younger, may also be separated, by taking off the efflorescence that gathers on the former salt, which is liable to no such alteration.

Of the Ammoniacal Phosphate.

THE ammoniacal phosphate, thus purified and separated from the phosphate of soda, is in the form of rhomboidal tetrahædral prisms, much compressed, and generally truncated in their length, and at the angles: in consequence of these circumstances, the prisms are, in some measure, hexagonal. There are likewise often enough found, according to M. Romé de Lille, from whom I take my description of this salt, longitudinal segments of the prisms, of which segments the side that lies on the capsule is the broadest; it is also rhomboidal, and intersected by two diagonal lines, crossing at the middle. The tetrahædral and octahædral form ascribed to it, appears only while this salt yet retains muriate and phosphate of soda. The power of communicating the octahædral form seems to belong peculiarly to the muriate of soda; for, when the former salt is dissolved in urine, and the liquor exposed to the sun, regular octahædral crystals are obtained in the course of a few days. The taste of ammoniacal phosphate is at first fresh, and afterwards urinous, bitter, and pungent: When heated with the blow-pipe on a burning coal, it swells, diffuses a smell of ammoniac, and melts into a deliquescent vitreous globule: When distilled in a retort, the heat disengages from it some very pungent and caustic ammoniac: the residue is a very fixed and fusible transparent glass, which corrodes the retort. Margraf says, that it is soluble in two or three parts of distilled water, and exhibits the properties of an acid. Rouelle affirms it to be deliquescent. M. de Morveau, again, thinks, that, with the help
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of a good fire, it may be reduced into an unalterable vitreous state. M. Proust has discovered, that this vitreous residue is a combination of phosphoric acid with a peculiar matter which he does not seem to have known, and which is nothing but phosphate of soda, as appears from the researches of several modern chemists. But it is to be observed, that this compound glass is only obtained when the ammoniacal phosphate distilled still retains a portion of phosphate of soda; and that, in this case, the glass appears to be always opaque, or liable to be very easily rendered opaque, whereas pure ammoniacal phosphate leaves a very transparent glass.

Ammoniacal phosphate is not liable to be altered by the action of air.

It appears to be very soluble in water, only five or six parts of cold water being requisite to maintain it in solution. Hot water, at the temperature of 170 degrees, decomposes it, and even volatilizes a part of its acid.

Ammoniacal phosphate acts as a flux on siliceous earth, aluminous earth, barytes, magnesia, and lime: But these vitreous compounds are owing to the phosphoric acid; for the ammoniac is disengaged before the fusion takes place.

Lime, and the two fixed alkalis, in a pure state, decompose ammoniacal phosphate, and separate the ammoniac. Lime-water, poured into a solution of this salt, produces a white precipitate, which can be nothing but calcareous phosphate. Alkaline and earthy carbonates likewise decompose it, and separate the ammoniac in the state of ammoniacal carbonate.

The effects of the mineral and vegetable acids on ammoniacal phosphate, have not as yet been examined with sufficient care. It must depend on the various elective attractions which exist between the phosphoric acid and
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its alkaline base: We shall treat of it when we come to speak of that acid.

The same is the case with respect to the alterations which ammoniacal phosphate suffers from metals, and metallic oxides; for those alterations depend entirely on the phosphoric acid.

Ammoniacal phosphate, treated with coal in close vessels, affords phosphorus. Bergman proposes the use of it as a flux, in assays with the blow-pipe.

Of Phosphate of Soda.

WE have described the manner in which phosphate of soda is obtained. It will be proper to give the dates of the different discoveries concerning it, before we proceed to examine its properties.

Hellot, in the year 1737, seems to have been the first who mentioned it; but he took it to be sulphate of lime. Haupt, in the year 1740, gave a better account of it, under the name of *sal mirabile perlatum*. Margraf described it in the year 1745. Pott made mention of it in the year 1757, but, like Hellot, took it for sulphate of lime. Rouelle, the younger, examined it in the year 1776, and gave it the name of *fusible salt, with a base of natrum*. All of these chemists perceived this salt to be different from the last, chiefly by observing, that it did not afford phosphorus with coal. But Rouelle has distinguished its properties better than any of the rest. According to him, its crystals are flat, irregular, tetrahædral prisms, with one of the extremities dihædral, and

and consisting of two rhomboids, the other adhering to the base. The four sides of the solid are two alternate irregular pentagons, and two oblong rhomboids, cut slope-wise.

Phosphate of soda, exposed to heat in a crucible, melts, and affords a white, opaque mass. When heated in a retort, it affords nothing but phlegm, without any acid or alkaline character; and the residue is an opaque glass, or frit.

In the air, this salt effloresces, and falls all down into dust.

It dissolves readily in distilled water, and crystallizes by evaporation: the solution turns the syrup of violets green.

Calcareous nitrate decomposes it: a precipitate of calcareous phosphate is formed; and the supernatant liquor affords nitrate of soda.

This salt is equally liable to be decomposed by the nitric solution of mercury. It forms a white precipitate, which, when distilled in a retort, affords a little reddish sublimate, and some running mercury, and leaves in the bottom of the retort, an opaque white mass, adhering to, and combined with the mercury. This mercurial precipitate forms again phosphate of soda, when boiled with a solution of carbonate of soda, and leaves the mercury in the state of a brick-red powder. Such are the facts which the younger M. Rouelle discovered concerning this salt. M. Proust, being engaged by that celebrated chemist, whose pupil he was, in a new examination of this matter, made a great many experiments upon it; of which the following are the principal results. On lixiviating the residue of phosphorus, formed from fusible salt of the first crystallization, from which he had obtained no more phosphorus but what was equal to an eighth

eighth part of the weight of the salt, the lixivium afforded, by evaporation in the open air, parallelogrammatic crystals, an inch in length, and in the proportion of five or six drachms to the ounce of the fusible salt from which the phosphorus was formed. It is to be observed, that this proportion would not be so great, were it not for the water that enters into the crystals. This substance melts in the fire into an opaque glass: it communicates a green colour to flame: it effloresces in the air: it decomposes nitrates and muriates, by disengaging the acids: it forms glasses with earthy matters, by fusion: it saturates alkalis, like an acid. From these facts M. Proust concluded this saline substance to be different in nature from all that he was before acquainted with,—to be combined with phosphoric acid, and ammoniac in ammoniacal phosphate,—and to form, with soda, Rouelle's *fusible salt with a base of natrum*. He observed, that it performed the functions of an acid, and compared it to the boracic acid. On this idea, M. Proust made new experiments on the fusible salt with a base of natrum, obtained by Rouelle's process, above described.

According to him, lime decomposes this salt; having a greater affinity than soda with the peculiar substance which performs in it the functions of an acid. Lime-water poured into a solution of this salt, produces a precipitate; and the soda is left in solution, in a pure caustic state.

The mineral acids, and even distilled vinegar, decompose it, in a way directly contrary to this. Rouelle supposed, that the sulphuric and the nitric acids did not act on this salt, because they produced upon it no visible change; but M. Proust, on mixing the sulphuric, the nitric, the muriatic, and the acetous acids, with a solution of *fusible salt with a base of natrum*, observed, that

although there was no precipitate formed in these mixtures, yet the liquors, when evaporated and cooled, afforded sulphate and nitrate, muriate and acetite of soda: which proves, 1. That the salt has been decomposed by these acids: 2. That it contains soda, as had been before shewn by the younger Rouelle. As to the separate substance which was before in union with the soda, it is plain that it remains in solution in the liquors, together with the new neutral salts. M. Proust distinguished it very plainly in the mother-water, obtained after the mixture of vinegar with the solution of the fusible salt, and the crystallization of the acetite of soda. By pouring on that mother-water, eight or ten times its bulk of alcohol, the last portions of the neutral acetous salt are dissolved, and a magma is formed, which must be washed with a new quantity of alcohol, and then dissolved in distilled water. This solution of the magma, when evaporated in the open air, affords parallelogrammatic crystals, precisely like those which are obtained by washing the residue of phosphorus, formed from fusible salt of the first crystallization, from urine. It is therefore, according to M. Proust, a peculiar substance, of the same nature with the boracic acid, which saturates the soda, in fusible salt with a base of natrum. This discovery seems to explain the reason why this salt does not afford phosphorus. To these particulars M. Proust added, that it was a new substance, which existed always in true fusible salt, or ammoniacal phosphate, and communicated to the phosphoric acid the property of melting into a glass; and for this reason, I gave it, in the first edition of this work, the name of *the base of phosphoric glass*. But M. Morveau has since been convinced, on sufficient evidence, that the pure phosphoric acid, obtained from phosphorus by deliquescence, and consequently contain-

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ing none of that substance, is fusible, by heat alone, into a solid and permanent glass. This series of experiments which M. Proust made with great care, and of which the results are particularly striking, induced Bergman to consider this substance as a peculiar acid: He gives a history of it in the second edition of his Dissertation on Elective Attractions, under the name of *acidum perlatum*, derived, no doubt, from the denomination given by M. Haupt, in the year 1740, to fusible salt with a base of natrum. M. de Morveau has introduced it, as a distinct article, into his Chemical Dictionary, under the name of the *uretic acid*, from the Greek name of urine, which affords it. But, since M. Proust's experiments, Bergman's Dissertation, and the compilation of M. de Morveau's article, M. Klaproth has published, in M. Crell's Journal, an analysis of *fusible salt with a base of natrum*; which annihilates this pretended peculiar acid, and shews it to be nothing but phosphoric acid in combination with soda. Mr Klaproth discovered this truth by such another experiment as that of the younger Rouelle. On precipitating the solution of *fusible salt with a base of natrum*, by calcareous muriate or nitrate, the precipitate which Rouelle had before mentioned as analogous to the base of bones, actually affords phosphoric acid by means of sulphuric acid. Mr Klaproth adds, that, on saturating phosphoric acid, obtained by the slow combustion of phosphorus with soda, with a small excess of the soda, there is a salt formed, precisely of the same nature with Haupt's *sal perlatum*, or Rouelle's *fusible salt with a base of natrum*; and that, in order to obtain the substance described by M. Proust, nothing more is necessary but to deprive this neutral salt of its excess of soda, by vinegar, or to add to it a little phosphoric acid. After this, we need not be surprised to find Bergman representing the

affinities of the *acidum perlatum*, as precisely the same with those of the phosphoric acid. This detail of particulars has been given by M. de Morveau, in a supplement to the acids of the mineral kingdom; and he grants, that after this, the *ouretic* acid, and *ouretic* salts, are no more to be mentioned.

It is very extraordinary, that phosphate of soda is not decomposable by coal, like ammoniacal phosphate;—that coal cannot deprive the phosphoric acid, when in union with soda, of its oxigene. This base, therefore, renders this acid incapable of being decomposed by coal; although it does not act in the same way on the sulphuric, and various other acids. This is a striking exception from the general law of the attractive elections of oxigene, of which no other instance is yet known. It is not less remarkable, that an excess of phosphoric acid, added to phosphate of soda, leaves to that compound, which, according to Mr Klaproth, is the peculiar substance of M. Proust, the power of rendering syrup of violets green.

M. de Morveau adds to the history of phosphate of soda, that a solution of muriate of lead poured into a solution of this salt, produces a precipitate of phosphate of lead. This last salt, by distillation with coal, affords phosphorus; as M. de Laumont, inspector of the mines, has discovered with an ore from the mines of Huelgoet. From this it appears, in what manner corneous lead, the use of which, in the distillation of phosphorus of urine, has been proposed by Margraf, may augment the quantity of the product, as we shall explain in the following chapter.

Of the Lithic Acid.

THE calculus or stone that is formed in the human bladder, has long engaged the attention of chemists and physicians. Paracelsus, who gave it the barbarous name of *duelech*, imagined it to consist of an animal resin, and compared it to arthritic concretions. Van Helmont thought it a concretion formed of the salts of urine, and an earthy volatile spirit; and believed it to be of a very different nature from arthritic chalk, the formation of which was, in his opinion, owing to the thickening and acidification of the synovia. Boyle extracted from it, oil, with a good deal of volatile salt. Boerhaave admitted in it the existence of an earth in union with volatile alkali. Hales extracted from it 645 times its own bulk of air; and out of 230 grains, obtained no more than 49 grains of residue: He called it *animal tartar*. Many learned physicians, and especially Whyte and Deffen, have considered alkaline matters as the true solvent of the urinary calculus. Several even proposed the use of the soap-makers' lixivium for that purpose. But none of these notions was founded on an exact analysis of the calculus. Scheele and Bergman first undertook such an analysis.

The former of these chemists discovered, that the stone in the bladder consists mostly of a peculiar acid, to which we give the name of the *lithic acid*. 70 grains of the calculus in the bladder afforded him, by distillation, 28 grains of this acid, in a dry and sublimated state,—some ammoniacal carbonate,—and 12 grains of coal, which he

found it very difficult to reduce to ashes. 1000 grains of boiling water dissolved 296 grains of the same acid; This lixivium reddened blue colours; but the greatest part separated in small crystals by cooling.

Concentrated sulphuric acid dissolves the calculus, with the help of heat; and passes, in consequence of effecting this solution, into the state of concentrated sulphureous acid. The muriatic acid does not act upon it; the nitric dissolves it entirely: nitrous gas and carbonic acid are disengaged, while this last solution is taking place. This solution is red; it contains a naked acid; it communicates a red tincture to the skin, and all organic tissues: When tried with soluble barytic salts, it exhibits no mark of its containing sulphuric acid,—nor of lime, when tried with oxalic acid. Lime-water forms in it a precipitate, which dissolves, without effervescing, in acids. Caustic alkalis, according to Scheele, dissolve the calculus: these solutions are precipitated by lime; 1000 grains of lime-water dissolve 537 of any of these precipitates; and ammoniac, in a large proportion, acts in the same manner on the calculus. That celebrated chemist asserts, that the brick-coloured sediment in the urine of people in a fever, is of the same nature. Although Scheele found no lime in the stone of the bladder, yet Bergman obtained some from it, by precipitating the nitric solution with sulphuric acid, and calcining the residue of the same solution. Bergman likewise discovered in the calculus, a white spongy matter, insoluble in water, acids, or alkalis: The incinerated coal of this substance, of which the quantity was so small that he could not ascertain its nature, is not even soluble in nitric acid.

From this analysis by two such celebrated philosophers, which has been again and again repeated by different chemists, the stone in the bladder appears to be of a different

ferent nature from the earth of bones. Yet Mr Tennant, Fellow of the Royal Society of London, has found in the bladder, stones which lost only two thirds by calcination, and whose residue melted into an opaque glass by cooling. These must therefore have contained a pretty considerable quantity of calcareous phosphate.

As to the lithic acid,—the properties which it is known to possess, are, 1. That of being concrete and crystalline: 2. That of being almost insoluble in water, but more soluble in hot than in cold water: 3. That of being soluble in nitric acid, from which it absorbs oxigene, and forming, after this solution, a deliquescent red mass, which communicates a colour to many bodies: 4. That of combining with earths, and metallic oxides; and forming with them peculiar neutral salts, which we call *ammoniacal lithiate*, *lithiate of copper*, *calcareous lithiate*, *lithiate of potash*, *lithiate of soda*, &c.: 5. The property of preferring, in its attractions, alkalis to earths: 6. Lastly, That of yielding these bases to the weaker of the other acids, even to the carbonic acid, which renders the calculus insoluble by alkaline carbonates; this last property is peculiar to this acid. But, as M. de Morveau has very well observed, much remains to be done before we can obtain a sufficient knowledge of the lithic acid; and, I may add, even before we can determine whether it be not a modification of some other acid; which may be suspected from what we know concerning the relations of the vegetable acids to one another, and the identity of the pretended *acidum perlatum* and *ouretic acid*, with the phosphoric acid.

M. de Morveau thinks the concretions at the joints, which physicians have considered as of the same nature with the calculus of the bladder, to be, in their nature, very different from it. But his opinion is founded only

on some experiments of Schenckius, Pinelli, and Whyte, which were far from being performed with due accuracy and attention: And the observations of Boerhaave, Frederic Hoffman, Springfield, Allston, Leger, &c. concerning the good effects of alkaline waters, soap, and lime-water, in arthritic and calculous cases, have, with me, greater weight in establishing the analogy between these two sorts of concretions, than the others in destroying it. There is, however, no refusing to agree with M. de Morveau, that experiments only can determine the question. This is a new proof of the beneficial influence of chemical researches on the science of medicine, and the advantages which it may derive from them.

C H A P. X.

Of Kunckel's Phosphorus.

PHOSPHORUS is one of the most combustible substances known. As it was first extracted from urine, and as the matter which affords the most of it is ammoniacal phosphate, it seems therefore most suitable to give the history of this inflammable substance in this place.

The discovery of phosphorus is owing, according to Leibnitz, to an alchemist of the name of Brandt, a citizen of Hamburgh, who found it out in the year 1667. Kunckel, to gain the knowledge of the process, associated with a man of the name of Krafft: But Krafft not communicating to him the secret, Kunckel resolved to search for it himself; and after many experiments on urine, from which he knew it to be obtained, he at last produced phosphorus, and was considered as being truly the discoverer of it. Some also ascribe the honour of this discovery to Boyle, who, in the year 1680, actually gave a small quantity of it into the hands of the Secretary to the Royal Society of London. But Stahl asserts, that

that Krafft had told him, that he communicated his process for making phosphorus to Boyle. Boyle communicated his process to a German, whose name was Godfreid Hankwitz, who had an excellent laboratory at London, and was the only man that prepared phosphorus, and sold it, through all Europe. Although, between the year 1680, and the beginning of the present century, there were produced many receipts for making phosphorus, and, among others, Boyle's, Krafft's, Brandt's, Homberg's, Teichmeyer's, Frederic Hoffman's, Niewentyt's, and Wedelius's; yet no chemist had hitherto prepared it openly; and the preparation was still quite a secret, when, in the year 1737, a stranger offered to communicate, at Paris, an infallible process for making phosphorus. The Academy named four chemists, Messrs Hellot, Dufay, Geoffroy, and Du Hamel, to try the process in the laboratory in the King's garden. The process succeeded. The minister bestowed a reward on the stranger; and Hellot gave an accurate account of the process, in a Memoir, inserted among the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1737. This process consists in evaporating five or six hogshheads of urine, till it be reduced to a granulated, hard, black, glistening matter,—calcining the residue in an iron pot, red-hot in the bottom, till such time as it cease to smoke, and take the smell of peach-flowers,—lixiviating this matter with, at least, twice as much hot water,—and drying it, after decanting off the water. Three pounds of this matter must be mixed with a pound and an half of coarse sand, or pounded stone-ware, and four or five ounces of powder of charcoal of beech. This mixture is to be moistened with half a pound of water, and introduced into an Hessian retort. The matter is assayed, by making a portion of it red-hot in a crucible: If it exhibit a violet flame, and diffuse a smell

of garlic, it will afford phosphorus. The retort is placed in a furnace made on purpose; and a large balloon, about one third of which must be filled with water, adapted to it. The balloon must be perforated with a small hole; and Hellot considered this as one of the manipulations that are the most necessary for the success of the operation. Three or four days after the apparatus has been set up, a moderate fire is kindled under it, to dry the furnace and the lutings: by degrees, the fire is augmented, and it is kept for fifteen or twenty hours in this state. The phosphorus does not distil till fourteen hours after the beginning of the operation, which lasts, in all, twenty-four hours. There arises, first, a large quantity of ammoniacal carbonate, a part of which is dissolved by the water in the balloon. Volatile or aeriform phosphorus passes, first, in luminous vapours: the true phosphorus then runs, like an oil, or melted wax. When it ceases to pass, the apparatus must be left to cool for two days. The luting must then be taken off; and water added, to loosen the phosphorus adhering to the sides of the receiver: It is next melted in boiling water; for which purpose, it is cut into small pieces, which are introduced into the necks of matrasses, cut towards the middle of the body into the form of a funnel, and immersed in boiling water. The phosphorus melts, is purified, and rendered transparent by the separation of a blackish matter which rises above it. It is then put into cold water, in which it congeals; and it is now thrust out of the matrasses with a small stick.—Such, in short, is the process described by Hellot. The tediousness of the operation hindered it from being repeated by any chemists but Rouelle, the elder, who, in his courses of chemistry, went through it several times with success.

In

In the year 1743, Margraf published, in the Memoirs of the Academy of Berlin, a new method for making, at once, a pretty large quantity of phosphorus, easier than had been done before him. In this process, the corneous lead which remains from the distillation of four pounds of *minium*, and two pounds of ammoniacal muriate, is mixed with ten pounds of extract of urine, of the consistency of honey. A pound and an half of powder of charcoal is next to be added to it. The mixture must be dried in an iron pot, till it be converted into a black powder. This powder is to be distilled in a retort, in order to extract from it, by a graduated fire, the ammoniacal carbonate, the foetid oil, and the ammoniacal muriate which it contains. Care must be taken, however, to urge it with fire no farther than just to make the retort red-hot. The black friable residue of this distillation, is the matter from which the phosphorus is extracted. It is assayed, by casting a little of it on burning coals. If it diffuse a smell of garlic, and a blue phosphoric flame, it may then be considered as well prepared. A retort of Hessian or Picardy earth is filled three-fourths full of it, and well luted. This vessel is then placed in a reverberating furnace, with a dome, and an iron chimney, six or eight feet high. A middle-sized receiver, perforated with a small hole, and half-full of water, is fitted to the retort. The joinings must be luted with fat lute, and covered with fillets of cloth dipped in white of eggs, and lime: A brick-wall must be raised between the furnace and the receiver; and after this apparatus has been suffered to dry for a day or two, the distillation may be carried on by a properly graduated fire. This operation lasts from six to nine hours, according to the quantity of the matter to be distilled. The phosphorus, thus obtained, is rectified by distilling it by a very moderate

derate fire, in a glass retort, with a receiver half-full of water. Almost all chemists have repeated Margraf's process successfully : and it was the only one in use, till, within these few years, another was discovered, which consists in separating the phosphoric acid from bones ; as we shall mention when we come to speak of those solid bodies.

It appears, that the only thing in which Margraf's process differs from Hellot's, is in the addition of the muriate of lead, and the division of the operation into two. But, what is of most importance in the ingenious chemist of Berlin's process, is, that it determines the nature of the substance contained in urine, which serves for the formation of phosphorus. By distilling a mixture of *fusible salt* with charcoal, he obtained excellent phosphorus ; and he observes, that the urine from which he had extracted that salt would yield no more of this combustible substance. That substance, therefore, which contributes to the formation of phosphorus, must be a constituent part of fusible salt ; and indeed phosphorus is easily obtained by distilling two parts of glass obtained from the decomposition of fusible salt in a retort or crucible, with one part of powdered charcoal. This operation requires much less time, and much less fire, than any that we have yet described ; for, according to M. Proust, the phosphorus is ready to run in a quarter of an hour. This, doubtless, is the best process that can be used to obtain phosphorus of urine. But there are several observations to be made on this head : 1. The vitreous residue, remaining after the decomposition of ammoniacal muriate by fire, not being pure phosphoric acid, but phosphoric acid in combination with phosphate of soda, which is not decomposable by coal, only a very little phosphorus can, therefore, be obtained, by employing this residue,—an ounce

ounce of it affording no more than a drachm, and often less : 2. When fusible salt is prepared in any large quantity by evaporation and cooling, it is found to be mixed with a considerable proportion of soda, which affords no phosphorus. These two observations may be, therefore, considered as explaining, why so little of this combustible body is obtained by the distillation of fusible salt with coal. Perhaps, fusible salt in its original state, or the mixture of ammoniacal phosphate with phosphate of soda, if distilled with coal and muriate of lead, would afford more phosphorus ; for muriate of lead appears to be capable of decomposing phosphate of soda.

Phosphorus, by whatever of these processes obtained, is still the same. When very pure, it is transparent, and its consistency like that of wax. It crystallizes by cooling, into brilliant plates of a micaceous appearance. In hot water, it melts a considerable time before the fluid be heated to ebullition. It is highly volatile, and rises in a thick fluid by a moderate heat. In contact with air, it exhales a smoke from every part of its surface : this vapour diffuses a strong smell of garlic, and appears white in day-light, and in the dark very luminous. It is a slow inflammation of the phosphorus from which it proceeds ; and when left for any time exposed to the air, phosphorus is gradually consumed, and leaves as a residue a peculiar acid, the properties of which we will afterwards examine. This slow combustion never takes place but when the phosphorus is in contact with air : Nay, to render it very luminous, a heat from twelve to fifteen degrees of Reaumur's thermometer, or about sixty-three degrees of Fahrenheit's, is requisite ; although the inflammation may take place under that temperature. This inflammation is not accompanied with heat, nor does it kindle any other combustible body.

But,

But, when phosphorus is exposed to a dry heat of 24 degrees Reaumur, or 86° Fahrenheit, it kindles with decrepitation: it burns rapidly with a very lively white flame, mixed with yellow and green, and destroys very speedily any combustible body that comes within its influence. The vapours which then exhale from it are very copious, white, and very luminous in the dark. This rapid combustion takes place with a very strong heat, and a very sparkling light, in a receiver full of vital air.

In these two different sorts of combustion, phosphorus leaves different residues. The first affords a liquor weighing more than twice as much as the phosphorus employed on the occasion, which we call the *phosphorous acid*. The second gives a very deliquescent and soluble, white, concrete matter, which is the *phosphoric acid*. This last was thought to resemble the acid and fluid residue of the first combustion, or the slow inflammation: But the two acids exhibit real differences in their combinations, as was first observed by Margraf, and has been shewn by M. Sage, in the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1777. We will speak more particularly of these differences in the history of the two acids.

The combustion of phosphorus was considered by Stahl as the disengagement of the phlogiston which he thought to be combined with muriatic acid* in that combustible.

* Stahl, in several of his works, has asserted, that phosphorus may be composed by combining muriatic acid with phlogiston. Margraf engaged in a series of experiments with a view to this; in which he treated various combinations of the muriatic acid with combustible matters; but could never succeed. He has even shewn, in a satisfactory manner, that the acid formed by the burning of this combustible body, is very different from that of marine salt; and all chemists are now of the same opinion.

buſtible body. M. Lavoifier, in order to diſtinguiſh what happens in this combuſtion, kindled, with a burning-glaſs, a quantity of phoſphorus in a bell-glaſs immerſed in mercury. He obſerved, that no more than a given quantity of this matter can be burnt in a certain bulk of air; that the quantity amounts to one grain of phoſphorus to ſixteen or eighteen cubic inches of air; that, after this combuſtion, the phoſphorus is extinguished, and the air rendered unfit to contribute to the combuſtion of a new quantity of phoſphorus; that the bulk of the air is diminiſhed, and the phoſphorus converted into white, ſnowy flakes, which fix on the ſides of the bell-glaſs: Thoſe flakes are equal to twice and one half more, the weight of the phoſphorus from which they are formed; and this increaſe of the weight of the phoſphorus correſponds exactly to the diminution of weight which the air has ſuffered, and is owing ſolely to the abſorption of phoſphorus by the oxigene. In fact, the white flakes are concrete phoſphoric acid, produced by the combination of phoſphorus with the oxigene, or baſe of vital air, contained in the atmopheric air which has contributed to the combuſtion of that inflammable ſubſtance. The theory of this ſubſtance is the ſame with that of ſulphur; and it is therefore unneceſſary to make any addition here to what was ſaid on that head, in the mineral kingdom.

Phoſphorus becomes liquid in hot water. Vital air, paſſed through phoſphorus thus liqueſied in water, burns it, and reduces it into the ſtate of phoſphoric acid.

Phoſphorus, though not ſoluble in this fluid, yet ſuffers, by degrees, an alteration in it. It loſes its transparency, becomes yellow, and is covered over with an effloreſcence, or coloured duſt. The water becomes acid,
and

and appears luminous when shaken in the dark. The phosphorus is then slowly decomposed.

Caustic fixed alkalis dissolve phosphorus, with the help of a boiling heat. While this combination takes place, there is a foetid gas disengaged that was first discovered by M. Gingembre, and possesses the singular property of kindling with an explosion, when brought into contact with atmospheric air, and more instantaneously still, when brought into contact with vital air. This elastic fluid consists of phosphorus dissolved in hydrogenous gas; and the hydrogenous gas is produced by the decomposition of the water. We call it *phosphorated hydrogenous gas*.

Sulphuric acid, distilled in a retort, with phosphorus, burns almost entirely away, but without emitting any flame. Concentrated nitric acid acts upon it with violence, and, if the phosphorus be hot, kindles it suddenly. When this experiment is made in a retort, with nitric acid not very highly concentrated, the phosphorus burns slowly, robs the nitric acid of its oxigene, and forms phosphoric acid. This process was described by M. Lavoisier in the year 1780.

The muriatic acid, even though oxigenated, does not act in a sensible degree on phosphorus.

Nitric salts, with the help of a gentle heat, kindle it with great rapidity.

Sulphur and phosphorus combine, according to Margraf, by fusion and distillation. The result is a solid compound, of a foetid smell, which burns with a yellow flame, and, in water, swells, and communicates to it the acidity and smell of alkaline sulphures; which properties shew, that these two bodies react on each other in a peculiar manner, as their union seems to occasion the decomposition of water.

Phosphorus does not combine so well as sulphur, with metals, though there be, in many particulars, a strong analogy between phosphorus and sulphur. Margraf attempted to form these combinations by distilling each of the metallic substances with two parts of phosphorus. None but arsenic, zinc, and copper exhibited peculiar phenomena. None of the other metals was at all altered by the phosphorus, which was partly burnt or sublimated in the receiver, without suffering any discernible change.

Phosphorus sublimated with arsenic, afforded that celebrated chemist, a matter of a beautiful red colour, not unlike realgar.

Zinc, distilled twice in succession with this combustible substance, afforded yellow flowers, punctuated and very light. The sublimate, when exposed to the action of fire, under a red muffle, kindled, and melted into a transparent glass, like that of borax.

Copper, treated in the same way with phosphorus, lost its brilliancy, and became very compact. Its weight was increased sixteen grains in the half drachm, and it burnt when exposed to flame. M. Pelletier has observed, that copper combines very well with phosphorus, and that the result of this combination is a sort of grey ore, brilliant, granulated, very hard, and very difficult to melt. To these compounds into which phosphorus enters unaltered, we give the name of *phosphures* of copper, zinc, arsenic, iron, &c.

The Marquis de Bullion and M. Sage have described a remarkable alteration which phosphorus suffers in metallic solutions. The first of these chemists discovered, that small pieces of phosphorus, introduced into solutions of gold, silver, copper, &c., were gradually covered with a crust, or a sort of bright metal case. These
elegant

élegant experiments shew, that phosphorus has a greater affinity with oxigene than several of the metals, and is capable of reducing their oxides. Bergman has established it as an unquestionable fact, that the arsenical acid is blackened and reduced into the state of arsenic when heated with phosphorus ; which, at the same time, as it deprives the semi-metal of its oxigene, is converted into phosphoric acid.

Phosphorus is soluble in all oils ; and renders them luminous. Spielman has discovered, that it dissolves in alcohol, and that the solution emits sparks, when poured into water. In this operation, a part of the phosphorus is precipitated in a white powder.

Phosphorus has not yet been used, either in medicine or in the arts. Messrs Menzius, Morgenstern, Hartman, &c. say, that they have found it to produce good effects in malignant and bilious fevers, when the strength has been exhausted, and in the miliary fever. Some authors have recommended it in the scarlet fever, the peripneumony, rheumatic pains, epilepsy, &c. ; but, though, in Germany, several dissertations have appeared, on the medicinal virtues of phosphorus taken internally, yet nothing can be affirmed as certain on this head, till such time as experience shall pronounce concerning it in a more decisive manner.

C H A P. XI.

Of the Phosphoric and the Phosphorous Acids.

THE phosphoric acid has been so called, because it was thought to exist ready-formed in phosphorus, from which it is obtained by combustion. But M. Lavoisier has proved this salt to be a combination of sulphur with oxigene.—There are four different processes for obtaining this acid. The first consists in burning phosphorus hastily, under bell-glasses, full of atmospheric air, and immersed in mercury, by the heat of a burning glass, or by touching it with a red-hot iron. Care must be taken, to put a little water on the sides of the glasses before the process commence. This process, invented by M. Lavoisier, affords, in a short time, a quantity of phosphoric acid, mixed with a small quantity of unburnt phosphorus, that is, of acid in part phosphorous. Vital air may be used in this act of combustion. In truth, the inflammation is so rapid and so violent, as often to break in pieces the glasses with a noise. This process affords phosphoric acid.

The

The second process, which we owe to Messrs Woulfe and Pelletier, is performed by passing a stream of vital air through phosphorus melted under water.

In the third, given by M. Lavoisier, the phosphorus is burnt by means of nitric acid, not very strong.—— Both these processes produce phosphoric acid.

The fourth process, a slow combustion, which has been improperly called the formation of phosphoric acid by *deliquium*, is very well described by M. Sage.— Sticks of phosphorus are placed on the sides of a glass funnel, the stalk of which enters a bottle; and its base is covered with a capital, the extremity of which remains open. A tube of glass is put into the neck of the funnel, to prevent the phosphorus from escaping, and to afford, at the same time, a passage, through which the air, displaced by the acid, may move off. Care must be taken to keep the sticks of phosphorus from touching each other, and to prevent the temperature of the place in which the apparatus stands from rising above sixty degrees; otherwise the phosphorus may probably deflagrate. In more or less time, there is obtained by this process, for every ounce of phosphorus, three ounces of acid, which collects and flows, by degrees, into the water in the bottle: it is phosphorous acid.

These four processes afford acid of phosphorus, in two different states, according as the phosphorus is either not decomposed, or entirely burnt and saturated with oxygen. These two acids, between them, exhibit phenomena, which may be compared to those of the sulphuric and the sulphureous acids.—Such is the origin of the differences between the results obtained by Messrs Sage and Lavoisier, in the combinations of this acid, which are related in the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1777. As already mentioned, we distinguish the former, that

in which the phosphorus is saturated with oxigene, by the name of the *phosphoric acid*; and the second, which is not entirely saturated with oxigene, we call the *phosphorous acid*.

Of the Phosphoric Acid.

PURE phosphoric acid, obtained without the addition of water, and in vital air, is in the form of white flakes, snowy, light, deliquescent, and of a very strong acid taste. When exposed to the air, it speedily attracts moisture. When brought into contact with a little water, it easily melts, and affords a white fluid, without smell, of an oily consistency, very ponderous, of a taste strongly acid, and capable of changing blue vegetable colours rapidly into red. If exposed to the action of fire in a retort, it affords a pure phlegm: the acid then concentrates, and becomes even more ponderous than the sulphuric acid: it assumes, by degrees, consistency and opacity; it is then like a soft extract. Lastly, when urged with a violent heat, it melts into a transparent glass, which is hard, highly electric, and insoluble, but exhibits none of the properties of an acid. It appears, that this solid vitreous state of the phosphoric acid, is owing to a more intimate combination taking place between the acidifiable base and the oxigene, and to the separation of a part of the latter. This idea, of a more intimate adherence taking place between the oxigene and the acidifiable base in phosphoric glass, which, as it is no longer acid, merits the name of *vitreous phosphoric oxide*, is confirmed, when we observe
how

how difficult it is to obtain from it phosphorus, with the help of coal, and how strong a heat must act on this mixture, to produce the desired effect.

Phosphoric acid obtained by slow combustion, or phosphorous acid, when heated in an open vessel, emits, from time to time, a faint flame, which is owing to its still retaining a residue of phosphorus that has not been all burnt, and the flame is accompanied with a smell of garlic. It then is concentrated, becomes dry, and at last melts like the former acid.

The concentrated phosphoric acid very speedily attracts moisture from the atmosphere. It combines with water, with the help of heat: it combines with a great many substances; and, in its combinations, exhibits some peculiar phenomena.

The liquid phosphoric acid does not appear to have any power over siliceous earth, according to the experiments of Bergman and M. de Morveau: But it has been shewn by Dr Priestley and Mr Ingenhousze, to act on glass.

The blow-pipe makes it bubble with aluminous earth. Phosphoric acid, when melted in Hessian crucibles, has been remarked, by M. de Morveau, to communicate to them a transparent vitreous covering.

It combines with barytes, and seems to prefer it to all other bases but lime, if the affinities of this acid have been rightly marked by Bergman. The properties of barytic phosphate are still unknown.

The phosphoric acid dissolves carbonate of magnesia, with effervescence. The salt which it forms with this substance is scarce soluble. A concentrated solution of it affords, by rest, in the space of four and twenty hours, small flat needle crystals, very slender, several lines in length, and cut obliquely at the two ends: it often takes

the form of a transparent jelly. These crystals of phosphate of magnesia, when exposed to a gentle heat, fall into powder. According to M. Lavoisier, the sulphuric acid decomposes this salt.

Phosphoric acid, poured into lime-water, precipitates from it a scarce soluble salt, which does not effervesce with acids,—is decomposed by mineral acids, but proof against the attacks of caustic alkalis. This salt is of the same nature with the base of bones.—An excess of phosphoric acid renders calcareous phosphate soluble in water; but magnesia, lime, caustic fixed alkalis, and even ammoniac, by carrying off from it the excess of acid, precipitate the neutral salt. Calcareous phosphate is not decomposable by caustic alkalis; but carbonates of potash and soda decompose it. The solid matter of bones consists of phosphate supersaturated with lime.

Phosphoric acid, saturated with potash, forms a very soluble salt, which, by evaporation and cooling, affords, though not without difficulty, crystals, in the form of tetrahædral prisms, terminating in pyramids, which have also four faces, corresponding to those of the prisms. This phosphate of potash dissolves much better in hot than in cold water: it swells on coals, but is somewhat obstinate against melting; and when melted, has no longer a saline taste. From the nitric solution of silver, it produces a white precipitate; and from the nitric solution of mercury, a yellowish white precipitate. It is decomposed by lime-water, which has a greater affinity than potash, with the phosphoric acid.

Soda, in union with the phosphoric acid, affords a salt, of an agreeable taste, much the same with that of muriate of soda. Phosphate of soda does not easily crystallize, and is often reduced, by evaporation, into a gummy matter, which runs into threads, like turpentine, and is deliquescent.

liquefcent. I have observed, in this thick matter, needles disposed in radii, which indicate a beginning of crystallization: But a little more soda than what is requisite to saturate the acid, added to this salt, instantly effects a change of its properties: its taste now becomes urinous; it turns syrup of violets green, crystallizes in large parallelograms, and effloresces in the air; in a word, it acquires all the properties of the fusible salt with a base of natrum, which we call *supersaturated phosphate of soda*. This salt does not afford phosphorus with coal; and neither phosphate of barytes, of lime, of potash, nor of soda, is liable to such a decomposition: Wherefore it appears, that the phosphoric acid must be in a naked disengaged state, in order to be decomposed by coal.

The ammoniacal phosphate produced by the combination of phosphoric acid with ammoniac, is more soluble in hot than in cold water, and affords, by cooling, crystals, which, according to M. Lavoisier, bear some resemblance to those of alum. I have remarked, that when the combination is truly neutral, it is very difficult to obtain it in crystals; for it is almost all evaporated even by a moderate heat. But an excess of ammoniac is favourable to the crystallization of this salt: A little phosphate of soda produces the same effect; and this is the state of that extracted from urine. Barytes, lime, and alkalis, decompose ammoniacal phosphate: Fire easily disengages the ammoniac; and accordingly, this salt affords phosphorus with coal.

The phosphoric acid decomposes alkaline sulphates, nitrates, and muriates, by the dry way; and, by its fixity, disengages the acids: but, in the humid way, it yields its bases to these acids.

The phosphoric acid, in a fluid state, acts only on a few metallic substances. It dissolves zinc, and iron, and copper,

copper, readily enough. None of these solutions affords crystals by evaporation, except the solution of iron, which, indeed, seems susceptible of crystallization. The others form into soft ductile masses, like extracts: when urged with fire, they emit sparks, and appear to form genuine phosphorus. Margraf, and the Academicians of Dijon have examined the different phænomena exhibited by this acid, in its action on metals and semi-metals.

The phosphoric acid likewise precipitates some solutions of metals, such as the solutions of mercury and silver by the nitric acid.

The nitric and acetous solutions of lead are, in like manner, liable to be precipitated by phosphoric acid, and by soluble phosphates. The precipitate produced by the decomposition of the latter, which is phosphate of lead, affords phosphorus, when distilled with coal.

This acid re-acts upon oils, and improves their smell. To oils not naturally sweet-smelling, it communicates a sweet smell, in some degree æthereal: some of them it thickens.

When distilled, in its dry state, with coal, it affords phosphorus.

By heating it in a retort, with alcohol, the Academicians of Dijon obtained a liquor highly acid, of a pungent and disagreeable smell, which burnt with a little smoke, and exhibited some of the properties of æther. The phosphoric acid became volatile in this experiment, for the product was acid. M. Lavoisier observed heat produced by this mixture. Most chemists, however, consider the phosphoric acid as insoluble in alcohol. Margraf, Rouelle, Scheele, Messrs Wenzel, Laffonne, Cornette, and the Duke de Chaulnes, recommend the use of alcohol to purify the phosphoric acid, and separate from

from it any extraneous matters which it may happen to contain.

Lastly, phosphoric acid, holding in solution phosphate of soda, affords, by fusion, an hard glass, insipid, insoluble, not deliquescent, and opaque, resembling that which fusible salt leaves when urged with fire.

We may add farther, that the phosphoric acid, which was formerly thought peculiar to urine, exists in a great many animal matters, as we have already seen, and as will farther appear in the succeeding chapters. Margraf informed the world of his having found it in vegetables. M. Berthollet has extracted it from such as afford ammoniac by distillation: M. Haffenfratz, from a great many plants growing in marshes, and on peat-earth. It has been found in various minerals, particularly in lead and iron, with which it appears to be combined in consequence of the decomposition of animal substances. Lastly, M. Proust has found it in combination with lime, in a sparry stone, in Spain.

Of the Phosphorous Acid.

IT has been related, that when phosphorus burns slowly, and is not completely saturated with oxigene, there is an acid formed different from that whose history we have just finished, and bearing to it the same relation which the sulphureous bears to the sulphuric, the nitrous to the nitric, and the acetous to the acetic acid. This difference between these two acids, in the proportion of oxigene that enters into their composition, occasions a wide difference between their properties, in the same manner

as in the other six which correspond, two and two. The phosphorous may be also considered as phosphoric acid, holding in solution a little phosphorus. This acid, when rubbed, and, still more, when heated, takes a foetid and disagreeable smell: part of it is then volatilized, in a very acrid and pungent white vapour: it is then more volatile than phosphoric acid. But this acid never rises all in vapour, like the sulphureous acid; it always contains more or less phosphoric acid, which causes it to leave a vitreous residue, or a melted phosphoric oxide, when treated with a strong fire. It may be prepared by decomposing phosphoric acid; and in the production of phosphorus, there is always a certain quantity of it disengaged. The distinctive properties of the phosphorous acid have not been all, as yet, particularly examined; but enough is known of them, to mark the difference that prevails between this and the phosphoric acid. M. Sage, in the Memoirs of the Academy for the year 1777, has given an account of some of the characteristic properties of the phosphorous acid. According to that chemist, the salt formed by the union of the acid obtained from phosphorus by *deliquium*, with potash, or phosphate of potash, is not deliquescent: Phosphate of soda is also crystallizable, but not deliquescent; but ammoniacal phosphate attracts moisture from the atmosphere.

C H A P. XII.

*Of the Soft and White Parts of Animals, and of
their Muscles.*

ALTHOUGH less progress has been made in the analysis of the solid parts of animals, than in the analysis of animal fluids, yet we are beginning to know something of the different matters of which they are composed. In the first place, we know, that difference of texture both indicates and occasions a difference in constituent principles. This assertion will be confirmed, by a comparative examination of the soft and white parts, with the muscles and bones.

All the soft and white parts of animals, such as the membranes, the tendons and aponeuroses, the cartilages, the ligaments, and the skin, contain, in general, a mucilaginous substance, which dissolves readily in water, but is insoluble in alcohol, and is known by the name of *jelly*. To extract this jelly, nothing more is requisite than to boil these parts of animals in water, and to evaporate the decoction, till it form, by cooling, into a solid tremulous mass. When evaporated by a more violent heat, it
affords

affords a dry, brittle, transparent substance, that is known by the name of *glue*.

Glue is prepared from all the white parts of animals. The skin, the gristles, and the feet of cows, are used in the preparation of a strong glue, in England, Flanders, Holland, &c. The skin of the eel is the basis of gilder's glue. A species of glue, used by painters, &c. is prepared of the parings of glove-leather and parchment. In short, there is scarce any animal, whose tendons, gristles, nerves, and skin—which is still better for the purpose, may not be used in the preparation of these different sorts of glue.

It is to be observed on this head, that glues differ in consistency, colour, taste, smell, and solubility. Some glues dissolve well enough in cold water; and others are only soluble in boiling water. The best glue is transparent, of a yellow colour, inclining to brown, without smell or taste, and entirely soluble in water, in which it forms a viscid fluid, of an uniform appearance, and which, when it dries, remains equally transparent and tenacious through all its parts.

Animal jelly differs from glue, properly so called, only in being less consistent and viscid. The former of these substances is obtained chiefly from the white and soft parts of young animals: it is also found in their flesh, muscles, skin, and bones. Glue is only obtained from the older animals, whose fibres are stronger and drier. However, as these two matters exhibit the same chemical properties; in the examination of them, on which we are entering, we shall take, for our specimen, the jelly that is obtained from the cartilages or membranes of the calf.

This matter has, in its natural state, scarce any smell: its taste is insipid. When distilled on a water-bath, it affords

affords an insipid, inodorous phlegm, liable to putrefaction. As it loses its water, it takes the consistency of glue, and, when thoroughly dry, is like horn. When exposed to a pretty strong heat, and to air at the same time, it swells, bubbles, and becomes liquid: it then becomes black, and exhales a copious smoke, of a foetid smell: it does not take fire, unless when exposed to a violent heat; and even then, not readily. By distillation in a retort, it affords an alkaline phlegm, an empyreumatic oil, and a little ammoniacal carbonate. It leaves a coal of considerable bulk, which is not easily incinerated, and contains muriate of soda and calcareous phosphate.

Jelly, exposed to an hot and humid atmosphere, first becomes acid, and soon after putrefies.

Water dissolves it in any proportion. Acids dissolve it easily, and alkalis still easier. The nitric acid disengages azotic gas from it. Most of these properties are nearly the same with those of insipid vegetable mucilages; only, insipid vegetable mucilages neither afford ammoniac by fire, nor azotic gas by the nitric acid. But this animal jelly may possibly owe these properties to a portion of albuminous matter, extracted by the water, at the same time with the gelatinous substance, especially when either glue or jelly is prepared by a long and strong decoction.

The muscles of animals consist of a parenchymatous cellular substance, which contains various humours, partly concrete, partly fluid. These humours are composed, 1. Of a red and white albuminous fluid: 2. Of a gelatinous mucilage: 3. Of a sweet oil, of the same nature with fat: 4. Of a peculiar extractive substance: 5. Lastly, Of a saline matter, the nature of which is not very well known. As the analysis of the flesh entire, which affords, in the water-bath, a vapid water, and, in the retort, an
alkaline

alkaline phlegm, empyreumatic oil, and ammoniacal carbonate, and leaves a coal that affords, by incineration, a little fixed alkali, and some muriate of soda or potash,—as this analysis affords no satisfactory information concerning the nature of these different principles, recourse must therefore be had to some means for extracting these substances unaltered, in order that we may be enabled to examine their properties separately.

To obtain and separate these several substances, the existence of which has been ascertained by M. Thouvenel, various modes of operation may be adopted. That physician squeezed out, in a press, the fluids contained in the muscular sponge; he coagulated the albuminous part by the action of fire, and obtained the salt by evaporation; he dissolved and separated the gelatinous mucilage, the salt, and the extract, with water; and by means of alcohol, he took off the two latter of these principles unmixed with jelly. It is generally very difficult to separate these different matters exactly; because they are all soluble in water, and alcohol dissolves, at the same time, both the saponaceous extract, and a part of the salt. The process which succeeds best, seems to be that which consists in, first, washing the flesh in cold water, which carries off the colouring matter, with a part of the salt; then digesting the residue which remains after this washing, in alcohol, which dissolves the extractive matter, and a part of the salt; and, lastly, boiling the flesh in water, after treating it with these two processes. This fluid dissolves the gelatinous part by ebullition; and likewise carries off such portions of the extract and the salt, as have escaped the action of the former solvents. A slow evaporation of the first water that was employed, in the cold, coagulates the albuminous part, which may then be separated by filtration; and from this filtrated liquor,

the

the saline matter may be obtained by another slow evaporation. By evaporating the alcohol in the same way, the coloured extractive matter is obtained: And lastly, decoction separates the jelly and the fat oil, which then swim on the surface, and are fixed by cooling. After the extraction of these several substances, nothing remains but the fibrous tissue: it is white, insipid, and insoluble in water: as it burns, it shrinks and contracts: it affords a good deal of ammoniac and very foetid oil in the retort, and a good deal of azotic gas by the acid of nitre. Lastly, it possesses all the properties of the fibrous part of the blood. It appears, therefore, that the muscular organ is the reservoir in which the vital functions deposit the fibrous matter; which becomes concrete by rest, and appears to be the focus, or basis of that property of animals, which is denominated *irritability* by physiologists.

All that now remains to be done, in order that we may gain an accurate knowledge of the flesh of animals, is, to examine the properties of each of the substances of which it consists.

The albuminous matter, jelly, and fat substance, are already known to us. The first is precisely of the same nature with the albuminous matter of the blood: we may observe, that it is this substance, which, being coagulated by the heat of the water in which meat is boiled for soup, produces the froth which is so carefully skimmed off. This froth is of a dirty, red-brown colour; for the original red colour of the albuminous matter is altered by the boiling heat. Jelly, obtained from flesh, generally causes soup prepared with the flesh of young animals, to form into a tremulous mass; for the flesh of young animals contains much more of it than the flesh of old animals: it is perfectly like that which composes

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the soft white parts of animals, the properties of which have been explained in the preceding article. The fat matter which forms the flat round drops that swim on the surface of soups or broths, and becomes solid by cooling, exhibits all the characteristic properties of grease. We have, therefore, nothing but the extractive matter, and the salt that is obtained in analysing the muscles, to examine.

The substance which M. Thouvenel calls *mucous extractive*, is soluble in water, and in alcohol : it has a discernible taste, whereas the jelly has none. When strongly concentrated, its taste becomes acrid and bitter : it has a peculiar aromatic smell, which is developed by fire. This is the substance which colours soups, and gives them the agreeable taste and smell by which they are distinguished. When they are too much evaporated, or when the proportion of the meat to the water is large, soups have then an high colour, and are more or less acrid in their taste. In short, the action of fire develops and improves the taste of this extractive matter, till it, at length, gives it the taste of sugar or caramel, as may be observed of the surface of the roasted meat, which is said to be *crisped*. When this extractive substance is evaporated to a dry consistency, and its properties still farther examined, its taste is observed to be acrid, bitter, and saltish : when put on a burning coal in this state, it swells, and becomes liquid ; exhaling, at the same time, a pungent acid smell, like that of burnt sugar. If exposed to the air, it attracts moisture from it, and a saline efflorescence is formed on its surface : in an hot atmosphere, it becomes sour and putrid, if diluted in a certain quantity of water : and lastly, it is soluble in alcohol. These properties render this substance very nearly of the same nature

nature with the saponaceous extracts, and the saccharine matter of vegetables.

As to the salt which is crystallized in the slow evaporation of a decoction of flesh; its nature is not yet perfectly known. M. Thouvenel obtained it in down, or in imperfectly-shaped crystals. That chemist thinks this to be a perfect neutral salt, consisting of potash, and an acid which in frugivorous quadrupeds has the characteristics of the phosphoric, and in carnivorous reptiles those of the muriatic acid. Although this salt may be considered as unknown till such time as a sufficient quantity of it can be collected for a particular examination; yet it is very probably either phosphate of soda, or ammoniacal phosphate; and it may even be mixed with calcareous phosphate. These salts are proved to exist here, and even with the same excess of acid as in urine, by the white precipitates which lime and ammoniac form in soup, as well as by the nitric solution of mercury producing from it a rose-coloured precipitate.

We may add farther, that the substance the most plentiful in muscular flesh, and which peculiarly characterises it, is the fibrous part. This matter is deposited from the blood, in which it exists in a large proportion, and acts an important part in the functions of the animal œconomy. Physiologists have not been particular enough in their accounts of its nature and properties, and of the weight and quantity of the flesh of the muscles, in comparison with that of the other organs. The properties which distinguish this animal matter, are, 1. Insolubility in water: 2. That of affording more azotic gas with the nitric acid than any other substance: 3. That of affording oxalic acid and malic acid, after the azotic gas: 4. That of becoming easily putrid when moistened, and affording a good deal of ammoniacal carbonate by distillation.

These properties shew, that it consists of a fat or oily substance, in combination with azote, of phosphate of soda, and of calcareous phosphate, which are separated from it by the action of the nitric acid. I have considered the office of the fibrous matter in the animal economy, in a particular Memoir, inserted among the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Medicine.

CHAP.

C H A P. XIII.

Of the Bones of Animals.

THE bones are the support of all the other parts of animals,—the basis on which all the soft parts rest. These hard parts are not to be considered as passive in the animal œconomy: they are actually secretory organs, and separate from the blood a peculiar saline matter, of which their own substance is formed, and which is designed to be accumulated in them as reservoirs.

The bones, considered as they exist in all animals, from man to the insect and the worm, differ in texture, in solidity, in position with respect to the muscles, and probably in the nature of their component principles. Chemical analysis has not yet ascertained any thing concerning this last particular. But one cannot help thinking, that the bones of men and quadrupeds must be of a different nature from those of fishes and reptiles, and still more different from the corneous skeleton of insects, and from the calcareous covering of shell-worms. The particular light in which we are here to examine the bones of animals, does not permit us to insist on these distinctions,

stinctions; and chemists have not yet made any researches that can enable physiologists to determine concerning them.

The bones of men and quadrupeds, the only bones that have yet been examined by chemists, are not earthy matters, as was once thought. They contain a certain quantity of gelatinous matter dispersed through the small cavities which intervene between the solid plates of which their texture is composed; and those solid plates, too, which, from their insolubility and consistency, were taken for earthy matters, have been, within these few years, discovered to consist of a true neutral salt, the component principles of which are phosphoric acid and lime.

Bones, when exposed to fire, with concurrence of air, kindle, in consequence of their containing a certain quantity of medullary fat. When distilled in a retort, they afford an alkaline phlegm, a foetid empyreumatic oil, and a considerable proportion of ammoniacal carbonate. The coal which they leave is compact, and somewhat difficult to incinerate. It leaves a white residue, which, when washed in cold water, affords a small quantity of carbonate of soda. Hot water then separates from it a certain quantity of sulphate of lime. What remains after these lixiviations, is not soluble in water: it is the calcareous phosphate which Dr Gahn of Stockholm discovered, in the year 1769, to exist in bones. Bones calcined in the focus of a furnace, among coals, remain luminous in the dark: when urged with a very violent heat, they are half-vitrified, and thus reduced to a sort of hard porcelain, very white, and semi-transparent.

The water in which bones grated down are boiled, is charged with a substance which renders it viscid, and is a true gelatinous matter.

Alkaline

Alkaline carbonates are capable of decomposing the calcareous phosphate which forms the basis of bones. This decomposition is mentioned by the chemists of the Academy of Dijon: they say, that they effected it on treating, by fusion, a mixture of powder of calcined bones, and carbonate of potash.

Acids act upon bones, and decompose the calcareous phosphate contained in them. It was by this means that Scheele, in the year 1771, prepared phosphorus from bones. He dissolved the bones in nitric acid. The acid seizing the lime contained in them, formed with it calcareous nitrate, which remained in solution, while the phosphoric acid was disengaged. Into this mixture he poured sulphuric acid, which, by detaching the lime from the calcareous nitrate, formed sulphate of lime: this sulphate of lime being precipitated as insoluble, he separated it by filtrating the liquor. Lastly, he distilled in a retort the filtrated liquor, which was a mixture of nitric acid and phosphoric acid; and after evaporating it to the consistency of a syrup, heated it with coal, in order to obtain from it phosphorus. Messrs Poulletier de Salle and Macquer were the first who repeated these ingenious experiments at Paris. After that, the academicians of Dijon, M. Rouelle, M. Proust, and M. Nicolas de Nancy, communicated their researches and processes, on the same matters, to the public. Various other chemists have vied with these in examining the different solid matters of animal bodies. Among others, M. Berniard has obtained phosphoric acid from fossil bones, from whale-bones; from the bones of the elephant and the porpoise, from those of the elk, from those of the cow, from human bones; from the teeth of the sea-cow, and from the grinders of the elephant; and he has observed, that all these bones afford the same substances,

and contain phosphoric acid in various proportions. The Marquis de Bullion has also obtained phosphoric glass from ivory, and from the bones of fishes.

The process mostly followed at present, in extracting phosphoric acid from bones, is that of the chemists of Dijon, and M. Nicolas. The bones are burnt white, reduced to powder, and passed through a sieve: they are then mixed, in a vessel of stone-ware, with an equal quantity of concentrated sulphuric acid, and as much water is added as is sufficient to give the whole the consistency of clear soup: the mixture is now suffered to rest for some hours, in the course of which it becomes thick; it is then poured on a filter of double cloth, and washed with water till the fluid pass through clear, and without acquiring any taste, or the property of precipitating lime-water. It is then certain, that the residue contains no naked phosphoric acid: the water which has been used in the washings is now evaporated; it deposits, by degrees, a white matter, which is sulphate of lime, and must be separated by the filter.

This salt must be carefully washed, in order to carry off all the phosphoric acid: these filtrations are to be repeated till the liquor cease to afford any sediment. The evaporation must be continued till it acquire the consistency of honey, or a soft extract. Its colour is then brown, and its appearance greasy. It is next put into a crucible, and heated till it cease to exhale a sulphureous and somewhat aromatic smell which at first arises from it,—and till it cease to bubble. In this state, the consistency of this matter is half vitreous, and its taste acid: it attracts moisture from the atmosphere. If urged farther with heat, it melts into a transparent glass, which is hard, insipid, and insoluble, and exhibits no mark of acidity. To obtain phosphorus from it, there
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is no occasion for waiting till this residue of the acid liquor, after evaporation, be brought into the state of an insoluble glass. In that state greater strength of fire is requisite; and even with that it yields phosphorus much slower than when soft and deliquescent. To reduce this glass into phosphorus, it must first be brayed to powder; then mixed with a quantity of dry charcoal, equal to one third of its own weight; next put into a stone retort, with a balloon half full of water fitted to it, which balloon must be pierced with a small hole, or connected by a syphon with Woulfe's apparatus. Fire is to be gradually applied till the retort be first reddened, and then rendered white; the phosphorus then runs in drops; and the operation lasts, altogether, from seven or eight, to ten or twelve hours, according to the quantity of the matter that is distilled, and the degree of heat which the furnace is able to bear. Six pounds of bones usually afford twenty ounces, or somewhat more, of a vitreous residue; and that residue affords about three ounces of very fine phosphorus, and a few drachms of phosphorus half decomposed. When the design is to prepare phosphorus of the phosphoric acid of bones, the acid must be evaporated to the consistency of an extract, and distilled with coal. Phosphorus is much more readily obtained by this process than by any other.

The case is the same with the acid product obtained from bones by the action of the sulphuric acid, as with the residue of ammoniacal phosphate decomposed by fire. That product is not pure phosphoric acid; for it never affords more than one fifth of its weight of phosphorus: it seems to contain a certain quantity of phosphate of soda. When this salt is mixed with calcareous phosphate produced from a little sulphate of lime, it usually melts with that phosphate, and forms with it a very
hard

hard opaque glass, which resists the action of all menstrua.

M. de Morveau has proposed a method for obtaining very pure ammoniacal phosphate from the phosphoric acid of bones. In order to that, dissolve the bones, after calcination, in weak sulphuric acid; assay the solution with a solution of bones in the nitric acid, in order to ascertain whether there still remain in it any sulphuric acid in a naked state: then precipitate, by caustic ammoniac, the calcareous phosphate which it contains,—as has been done by M. Wiegleb, in his process: filtrate the liquor; and leave it to evaporate in the open air. You thus obtain very beautiful crystals of ammoniacal phosphate, mixed with a little phosphate of soda which separates by efflorescence: the calcareous phosphate remaining on the filter may be likewise decomposed, in order to form phosphorus from it.

C H A P. XIV.

Of various Substances of Use in Medicine and the Arts, which are obtained from Quadrupeds, the Cetaceous Animals, Birds, and Fishes.

WERE my design to give a minute and accurate history of all the animal substances used in medicine and the arts, I should have occasion to say more on this single head, than I have hitherto said concerning the whole animal kingdom; especially when I should come to mention the different animal matters that were formerly introduced into medicine, by quackery or credulity, as famous specifics, and are now happily considered as entirely useless. I intend only to mention the principal of those substances,—such as chemical and medical experience has determined to possess powerful virtues, and such as are at present much used in the arts.

Of the matters which quadrupeds afford, we shall consider only castoreum, musk, and the hart's-horn. The white of the whale, and ambergrise, are the only products

ducts of cetaceous animals which will be here treated of. Of the products of birds, we shall give an analysis of the egg. Among oviparous quadrupeds and serpents, the tortoise, the frog, and the viper, will deserve to be separately considered. The only product of fishes which we shall examine, is the ichthyocolla. Insects will afford numerous subjects for examination: we shall consider cantharides, ants, wood-lice, honey and wax, silk and the silk-worm, gum lac, kermes, cochineal, and crabs stones. Lastly, we shall close our examination of the products of the animal kingdom, with considering the nature of the coral and corallines, which belong to the class of worms or polypi.

From this brief enumeration of the matters which we mean here to consider, it will appear, that we mean to take no notice of a great many other animal matters which were formerly used in medicine; such as, among others, ivory, the unicorn's horn, the teeth of the hippopotamus, of the beaver, and of the boar, the bones of the stag's heart, the feet of the elk, bezoar, civet, and the blood of the wild goat, among quadrupeds; the swallow's nest, goose grease, peacock's dung, and the membrane of the stomach of poultry, among birds; the toad and the scincus, among oviparous quadrupeds; the gall and stones of the carp, the liver of the eel, the stones of the perch, and the jaws of the pike, among fishes; the scarabæus, the spider's web, the meloe or proscarabæus, and the claws of the crab, among insects; lastly, shell-worms, snails, oyster-shells, nacles of pearls, and bones of cuttle fish, among the naked or covered worms. Of these substances, some possess none but imaginary virtues; and the uses of others are better supplied by the substances which we have selected for examination.

§ I. Of Castoreum.

THE name of *Castoreum* is given to two bags situated in the inguinal region of the male or female beaver, containing a strongly odorous matter, which, when they are newly taken from the animal, is soft and almost fluid, but in the course of time becomes dry, and acquires the consistency of a resin. This matter has an acrid, bitter, and nauseous taste; its smell is strong, aromatic, and even fœtid: it consists of a coloured resin, soluble by alcohol and æther; a gelatinous, and partly extractive mucilage, which are taken up by water; and a salt, which crystallizes when the aqueous solution is evaporated, but of which the nature is not yet known. The resin of castoreum, in which all its virtue consists, seems to be very nearly of the same nature with that of the bile. The whole of this animal product is included in membranous cells which proceed from the internal tunic of the bag in which they are contained. Castoreum has never been yet properly analysed: we know only that it affords a little volatile oil, and some ammoniacal carbonate, by distillation; and that, by means of æther, alcohol, and water, the several matters of which it consists may be separated.

It is used in medicine as an antispasmodic, in hysteric and hypocondriac cases, and in the convulsions occasioned by those affections. It often produces the happiest effects very speedily; but at other times it irritates, instead of soothing; its effects being either favourable or unfavourable, according to the particular character of the nervous system of the patient. It ought therefore to be administered only in small doses, when it is first given. It has been also prescribed with success for the epilepsy and

and tetanus. It is usually given in doses of from a few grains to half a drachm; it enters into the composition of boles; it is generally, and almost always with good effects mixed with opium, and all calming or narcotic extracts. It is likewise used in a spiritous and an æthereal tincture, of which, from a few drops to four-and-twenty or six-and-thirty grains are given in certain drinks.

§ II. *Of Musk.*

MUSK, a substance of which the strong and permanent smell is generally known, is contained in a bag situated near the umbilical region of a ruminating quadruped so like the antelope, that it scarce deserves to be ranked under a different genus. This matter, in its chemical properties, resembles castoreum. It is a resin, combined with a certain quantity of mucilage, bitter extract, and salt. Factitious musk is often sold instead of the real. Its virtues are superior to those of castoreum: it is more active; and is therefore never employed but in cases of extreme urgency. It is given as a potent antispasmodic, in convulsive disorders, in the hydrophobia, &c. It is likewise considered as a violent aphrodisiac. It should be very cautiously used; for it often excites, instead of allaying nervous affections.

§ III. *Of Hartshorn.*

HARTSHORN is one of those animal substances which are the most used in medicine. It is a bony substance, and does not in any respect differ from bones. It contains a considerable quantity of soft jelly, very light
and

and nourishing, which is extracted by boiling it, after it has been first reduced into small pieces, in eight or ten times its own weight of water. By distillation in a retort, it affords a reddish ammoniacal phlegm called *volatile spirit of hartshorn*, an oil more or less empyreumatic, and a great quantity of ammoniacal carbonate contaminated with a little oil. There is disengaged from it a very large proportion of elastic fluid, consisting of a mixture of carbonic acid gas, azotic gas, and hydrogenous gas with carbonaceous matter and even volatile oil dissolved in it. The oil, however, is gradually precipitated by cooling; it then adheres to the sides of the glass vessels containing the elastic fluid. As the volatile salt is coloured, it must be digested in a little alcohol, to free it of the oil by which it is contaminated. The carbonaceous residue, when incinerated, is found to contain a little carbonate of soda, some sulphate of lime, and a considerable quantity of calcareous phosphate mixed with phosphate of soda—which, as has been mentioned in the article of bones, is to be decomposed with sulphuric acid.

The spirit and salt of hartshorn are used in medicine, as good antispasmodics. The former, saturated with succinic acid, forms the succinated liquor of hartshorn.

Oil of hartshorn, when rectified by a gentle heat, becomes very white, strongly odorous, highly volatile, and almost as inflammable as æther. It is known by the name of *animal salt of Dippel*, a German chemist, who was the first that prepared it. It used formerly to be rectified a great many times, in order to render it very white and fluid. But it has since been observed, that two or three distillations are sufficient, provided care be taken, 1. To introduce the oil that is to be rectified, into the retort, through a long funnel, in order that the neck
of

of the vessel may be very clean ; for, a single drop of coloured oil would be enough to colour the whole quantity under distillation : and, 2. To take only the first portions, which are the whitest, and the most volatile. For these observations, we are indebted to Messrs Model and Baumé.—Rouelle has likewise given a very good process for obtaining this oil ; it consists in distilling it with water. As none but the most volatile part, which is truly æthereal, and entirely contained even in the oil of the first distillation, can be volatilized by the heat of boiling water, we are sure of obtaining, by this mode of operation, nothing but the most subtle and penetrating part. This oil has a lively smell, and is amazingly light and volatile : it exhibits all the properties of vegetable volatile oils ; and seems to differ from them only in containing some ammoniac ; for, it turns syrup of violets green, as has been observed by M. Parmentier. This oil is used, in drops, in cases in which the nerves are affected, in the epilepsy, &c.

§ IV. *Of the White of the Whale.*

THE white of the whale, improperly called *sperma ceti*, is an oily matter, concrete, crystalline, semi-transparent, and of a peculiar smell, which is taken from the cavity of the cachalot, and is purified by liquefaction, and by the separation of another oil, fluid, and not susceptible of concretion, which is mixed with it. This substance displays very singular chemical properties, in which it nearly resembles both fixed and volatile oils.

The white of the whale, when heated in contact with air, kindles, and burns in an uniform manner, without diffusing any disagreeable smell. Excellent candles are therefore

therefore made of it, in those places where it is prepared, at Bayonne, at St Jean-de-Luz, &c. In England, there are many manufactories of these candles: within these few years, some such have been established at Paris.

When distilled by naked fire, it does not, according to M. Thouvenel, yield any acid phlegm, like fixed oils, but passes entire, and almost unaltered, into the receiver, as soon as it begins to boil; leaving on the retort a carbonaceous mark. On repeating the operation, it loses its solid form, and remains fluid, without becoming more volatile.

The white of the whale, when exposed to hot air, becomes yellow and rancid, but not so easily as other fixed concrete oils. Water in which it has been boiled, affords, by evaporation, nothing but a light mucosunctuous residue.

Caustic alkali dissolves the white of the whale, and forms with it a soap which, by degrees, becomes solid, and at length friable.

The nitric and the muriatic acids are incapable of acting on this substance. The concentrated sulphuric acid dissolves it, and, at the same time, alters its colour: this solution is precipitated by water, like oil of camphor.

The white of the whale combines with sulphur, like fixed oils.

Fixed and volatile oils dissolve the white of the whale, with the help of heat. Hot alcohol likewise dissolves it, but suffers it to precipitate by cooling. Æther effects this solution cold, or, at least, without the help of a greater heat than the natural warmth of the hand.

Perhaps, the white of the whale may bear the same relation to fixed oils which camphor bears to volatile oils.

It differs essentially from wax, which seems to bear the same relation to the former, as resin to the latter.

Formerly, this substance was very much used in medicine; a great variety of medicinal properties were ascribed to it. It was used, especially, in cases of catarrh, erosions, ulcers of the lungs and reins, &c. At present, it is employed as a calming medicine; and, even for that purpose, in very small doses, and mixed with mucilages; for it is allowed to be heavy upon the stomach, and to occasion disgust, nausea, and even vomiting.

I have found, in animal matters, especially in the parenchyma of the liver, after drying it in the air for some years, and in the muscles of animals altered by putrefaction, a matter possessing nearly the same properties with the white of the whale. This substance, therefore, appears to me to be very copious among animal matters, and to be an oil peculiar to this department of nature.

§ V. *Of Ambergrise.*

AMBERGRISE is a concrete matter, of a soft tenacious consistency like wax, of a grey colour, marked with yellow or black spots, and of a strong, sweet smell, when it is heated or rubbed. It exists in irregular masses, which are sometimes round, and consist of layers of different sorts, and either greater or smaller, according as the number united in the mass is greater or less. There have been pieces of it seen, which weighed more than two hundred pounds. This substance appears evidently to have once been in a liquid state, as various extraneous matters are found incorporated with it; such as the neb of the cuttle fish, bones of fishes, and other marine bodies. Ambergrise is found floating on the waters of the ocean

ocean near the Molucca Isles, Madagascar, Sumatra, and on the coasts of Coromandel, Brazil, Africa, China, and Japan. Some American fishermen informed Dr Schwebdiaur, an English physician, that they had often seen this matter among the excrements of that species of the whale which Linnæus calls *physteter macrocephalus*, in his stomach, and in a bag situated near that region. Naturalists take notice of a good many varieties of ambergrise; Wallerius reckons the six that follow :

Varieties :

1. Grey ambergrise, with yellow spots.
2. Grey ambergrise, with black spots.

These two varieties are the most valuable, and the most in request.

3. White ambergrise, of only one colour.
4. Yellow ambergrise, of no more but one colour.
5. Brown ambergrise, of a single colour.
6. Black ambergrise of a single colour.

It is to be observed, that these varieties are owing to a mixture of some extraneous substances.

There is a great disagreement among philosophers concerning the origin of ambergrise. By most of them, it has been considered as a bitumen,—a sort of petroleum, issuing from the rocks, and condensed by the action of the sun and the water of the sea. Others have imagined it to be made up of the excrements of birds nourished on odoriferous herbs. Others, again, have ascribed its origin to the foam of the sea, the excrements of the crocodile, &c. Pommet and Lemery thought it a mixture of wax and honey, hardened by the action of the sun, and altered by the sea-water. M. Formey, who has adopted this

opinion, supports it by an experiment which consists in digesting wax and honey. He asserts, that a product may thus be formed, of an agreeable smell, nearly the same with that of ambergrise.—Some English authors have considered ambergrise as an animal juice, deposited in bags situated near the root of the genital organ in the male whale; and others have imagined, that it is formed in the bladder of that cetaceous animal: But the nets of cuttle-fishes found in this concrete juice, are sufficient to confute these opinions. Lastly, Dr Schwediaur, after examining a great many specimens of ambergrise, and receiving accounts concerning it from different navigators, has concluded this substance to be formed in the alimentary canal of the *physeter macrocephalus*,—the species which affords the *sperma ceti*, or white of the whale. He considers ambergrise as an excrement of this cetaceous animal, mixed with some parts of its food,—1. Because fishermen find it in this whale: 2. Because it is common in the latitudes which they inhabit: 3. Because beaks of the cuttle-fish with eight feet, *sepia octopoda*, on which that animal lives, are always found in it: 4. Lastly, Because he distinguished the black spots mixed through ambergrise to be the feet of this polypous animal. His researches have raised this opinion of the Japanese, and of Kempfer, to an high degree of probability; for which reason, we now rank this matter among the products of the animal kingdom.

Yet this substance, which has been analysed by Geoffroy, Neuman, Grim, and Brown, afforded those chemists the same principles with bitumens; that is to say, an acid spirit, a concrete acid salt, some oil, and a carbonaceous residue. But Dr Schwediaur observes, with great propriety, that the calculi of the animals afford the acid, and that the existence of that salt is in favour of his opinion, for fats contain a great deal of it.

Amber-

Ambergrise is stomachic, cordial, antispasmodic. It is used in doses of several grains, in certain drinks, or mixed with other substances, in pills. The odorous principle of this medicine is often too active, too penetrating, and liable to do harm. It is well known, that many persons cannot bear the smell of it without feeling their nerves very disagreeably affected: it should therefore be administered very cautiously. It has been also considered as a powerful aphrodisiac. Some physicians, however, think that ambergrise may be prescribed in very copious doses, without producing any very powerful effects.

Ambergrise is chiefly used as an article of perfume, for the toilet: it is usually mixed with musk, the smell of which it weakens so as to render it much more agreeable. Yet every person is not fond even of this mixture.

As ambergrise is very dear, it is counterfeited and mixed with different substances. When genuine, it displays the following properties: It is scaly, insipid, and sweet-smelling; it melts without rising in bubbles or froth, when exposed, in a silver-spoon, to the flame of a taper; it swims on water, and does not stick to hot iron. Ambergrise which does not exhibit these properties, is to be considered as impure.

§ VI. *Of the Eggs of Birds.*

BIRDS' eggs, particularly hen-eggs, consist, 1. Of a bony shell, which has been shewn by M. Berniard, to contain a jelly, and calcareous phosphate; 2. Of a membranous pellicle, immediately under the shell, which appears to be a tissue of fibrous matter; 3. Of white;

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4. Of

4. Of yellow, inclosed and suspended in the middle of the white. On this last substance the germ is supported.

The white of the egg is precisely of the same nature with the serum of the blood : it is viscid and adhesive : it communicates a green colour to syrup of violets ; and contains carbonate of soda, in a naked state. By a gentle heat, it is coagulated into an opaque, white mass, which exhales the foetid smell of sulphurated or hepatic hydrogenous gas. This white, when coagulated and dried on a water-bath, affords an insipid phlegm, which putrefies, and acquires the dryness and reddish transparency of horn. By distillation in a retort, it affords ammoniacal carbonate, and empyreumatic oil : its coal contains soda, and a little calcareous phosphate. M. Deyeux likewise obtained a little sulphur from it, by sublimation.

The white of the egg, when exposed to the air in thin layers, rather becomes dry than putrid, and forms a sort of transparent varnish. It dissolves in water in any proportion. Acids coagulate it : This coagulum, when diluted in water and filtered, affords, by evaporation of the filtered liquor, a neutral salt, consisting of the acid which was employed to effect the evaporation, with soda. Alcohol likewise coagulates the white of the egg. Lime-water precipitates calcareous phosphate from it ; and nitrate of mercury produces phosphate of mercury, which takes a rose-colour by desiccation.

The yellow, or yolk of the egg, consists mostly of albuminous matter, mixed, however, with a certain quantity of sweet oil ; so that this mixture dissolves in water, and forms a sort of animal emulsion called *ben's milk*. When exposed to the action of fire, it is reduced to a mass, not so solid as that which the same agent forms

forms from the white. When dried, it becomes soft, in consequence of the disengagement of its oil, which exudes from its surface. By submitting it to the press, in this state, that oil is obtained, and is found to be sweet and fat, and of a smell and taste, in a slight degree, empyreumatic. The yolk of the egg distilled, after the extraction of this oil, affords the same products as other animal matters. Acids and alcohol coagulate it. The eggs of animals, as containing sweet oil, bear a great resemblance to the seeds of many vegetables; for these likewise contain a sweet oil, united in the same manner with a mucilage, and reduced to an emulsive state.

Eggs are very much used as an article of food. Their different parts are used in pharmacy and medicine. The shell is calcined, and employed as an absorbent. It is applied externally, to cure burnings, chaps, &c. The yolk of the egg renders oils soluble in water, and thus forms lohochs: it is triturated with resins, camphor, &c. The white of the egg is of considerable use in pharmacy and confectionary, to clarify the juices of plants, wheys, syrups, and other fluids. It is also laid on paintings, which it preserves by forming a transparent varnish on their surface.

§ VII. *Of Ichthyocolla.*

ICHTHYOCOLLA, or fish-glue, is a substance partly gelatinous, partly lymphatic, which is prepared by rolling up the membranes that form the air-bladder of the sturgeon, and some other fishes, and leaving them to dry in the air, after twisting them into the form of a short cord,—in which we receive them. This matter affords a viscous jelly, when boiled in water. When left

to macerate in that fluid, it may be unfolded and extended into a sort of membrane. It is never brittle, like glues properly so called; but its fibrous and elastic texture renders it always susceptible of being twisted. There is also a species of it prepared from a decoction of the skin, the stomach, and the intestines of fishes; but this species is not equally valuable in the arts. All the products of other animal substances are obtained from ichthyocolla. It may be employed in medicine, as an emollient, in disorders affecting the throat, the intestines, &c.; but several vegetable substances, possessing the same virtues, are commonly preferred. It is used in the arts, to clarify liquors, wine, coffee, &c. It attracts and precipitates all extraneous matters, altering their transparency.

§ VIII. *Of the Tortoise, the Frog, and the Viper.*

THE tortoise, the frog, the lizard, and the viper, are very much used in medicine: decoctions or soups, to which peculiar virtues have been ascribed, are prepared of them. In fact, animals whose component parts, in general, are strong-smelling, and are found to contain a good deal of saline matter, by affording a considerable quantity of ammoniac, when distilled by a gentle heat after being triturated with potash;—it would appear, that such animals must possess more numerous and more powerful virtues than others. Many physicians, however, doubt of the singularity of their virtues, and class them with other animals. Notwithstanding this opinion, turtle and frog soups are still administered in diseases attended with languor, in consumptions without apparent cause, and in recovery from acute diseases,—

diseases,—and are often attended with good effects. It appears, that decoctions of these animal substances are peculiarly nourishing, light, and pleasant, and perhaps, at the same time, possessed of a peculiar activity, as their strong smell and uncommon taste seem to indicate. Within these few years, the use of green lizards has been recommended in disorders affecting the skin, and cancers; but we may venture to doubt of their virtues.

Vipers are thought peculiarly active. The ancients talked much of their virtues in disorders affecting the skin, in disorders of the breast, and in chronical distempers in which the lymph is vitiated. One cannot help thinking, that viper soups must occasion depuration by the skin, by virtue of their powerful aroma. The powder and volatile salt of these animals is far from possessing the same virtues. To produce their full effects, these animals should be administered altogether as articles of food in the above diseases.

M. Thouvenel obtained from these animals, by chemical analysis, a jelly more or less light, either consistent or viscid,—an acrid extract, bitter and deliquescent,—a concrescible albuminous matter,—an ammoniacal salt,—and an oily substance, of a peculiar taste and smell, and sometimes soluble in alcohol, &c.

§ IX. *Of Cantharides.*

CANTHARIDES, a medicine so valuable for its corrosive and epispastic powers, consist, according to M. Thouvenel, 1. Of a parenchyma, the nature of which he has not determined, and which composes one half of the weight of the dried insect: 2. Of three drachms

drachms to the ounce of a reddish-yellow extractive matter, exceedingly bitter, which affords acid by distillation : 3. Of twelve grains to the ounce of a yellow, wax-like matter, to which the golden yellow colour of cantharides is owing : 4. Of sixty grains of a green, oily, wax-like substance, of an acrid taste, in which the smell of cantharides chiefly resides. This substance affords, by distillation, a very pungent acid, and a concrete, wax-like oil. Water dissolves the extract, the yellow oil, and even a little of the green oil ; but æther does not act on the latter, and may therefore be successfully employed to separate the others. The virtue of cantharides is owing to this green wax. To extract this, together with the extractive matter, and by such means form a tincture charged with the substance of these insects, a mixture consisting of equal parts of alcohol and water, must be employed. When this mixed tincture is distilled, the alcohol retains a faint smell of cantharides ; and the several matters contained in it are separated, as the evaporation takes place.

§ X. Of Ants and the Formic Acid.

THE acid of ants has been observed by Tragus, Bauhin, and several other botanists, who perceived the flower of chicory to become very red in an ant-hill. Samuel Fisher, Etmuller, and Hoffman, successively examined it. Margraf examined it with great care, and found that ants contain a peculiar acid, a fixed oil, and an extract. Messrs Ardvisson and Oerhne have made the most complete series of experiments on this acid.

This acid is obtained, especially from the great red ant, *formica rufa*, either by distillation in a retort, or by
lixiviation

lixiviation with boiling water. This acid, when rectified, and a little concentrated, has a pungent smell: it is burning: its taste is pleasant, when diluted with a large proportion of water; it has therefore been proposed as a seasoning, instead of vinegar. It speedily reddens all blue vegetable colours: it is decomposed by fire, which converts one part of its principles into carbonic acid; and by the sulphuric and the nitric acids, which also extricate from it the same acid. It detaches oxigene from the oxygenated muriatic acid: it is stronger than the sulphuric, the boracic, the carbonic, the acetous, or the nitrous acid. It forms a sort of æther with alcohol. The neutral salts which it forms with alkaline bases, have been examined by Messrs Ardwissen and Oerhne. Formiate of potash has been prepared by M. Thouvenel, by spreading cloths, previously dipped in potash, over ant-hills which had been opened up: the ants running upon the cloths, deposited upon them as much of their acid, and of the odorate principle which they exhale in great abundance, as was sufficient to saturate the fixed alkali. A lixivium formed from those cloths, afforded, by evaporation, a neutral salt in flattened parallelograms, or prismatic columns, and not deliquescent.

Lime forms, with this acid, a crystallizable and soluble salt. In a word, modern chemists consider the formic as a peculiar acid. Its affinities have been arranged in the following order, by Messrs Ardwissen and Oerhne: barytes, potash, soda, lime, magnesia, ammoniac, zink, manganese, iron, lead, tin, cobalt, copper, nickel, bismuth, silver, aluminous earth.

Alcohol digested over ants, extracts from them a little volatile oil, which, with that fluid, forms Hoffman's *spirit of magnanimity*. By first boiling these insects in water, and then squeezing them, a fixed oil is obtained in the
proportion

proportion of thirteen drachms to the pound. This oil is of a greenish yellow colour: it congeals sooner than oil of olives, and is much like wax. The water of the decoction affords, by evaporation, a reddish brown extract, of a foetid smell, acidulous and caseous, of a bitter taste, nauseous and acid. This extract is separable into two substances, by the successive application of water and alcohol. The parenchyma of ants separated from these substances, amounts to two or three drachms in the pound.

§ XI. *Of Wood-Lice.*

WOOD-LICE, *millepedes, aselli, porcelli, onisci, &c.* exhibited to M. Thouvenel, when he analysed them, some properties peculiar to themselves. When distilled without addition, in a water-bath, they afforded an insipid alkaline phlegm, which sometimes produced an effervescence with acids, and turned syrup of violets green. They lost, in this operation, five eighths of their weight. When treated, afterwards, with water and alcohol, they afforded two drachms of soluble matter in the ounce; and of these, more than two thirds was extractive matter, and the rest an oily or wax-like substance. These two products are easily separable by æther, which dissolves the latter, without affecting the former. These matters differ from those of cantharides and ants, in affording more ammoniacal carbonate, and no acid, when distilled. M. Thouvenel observes, on this subject, that, among insects, wood-lice seem to bear the same relation to cantharides and ants, as oviparous quadrupeds and serpents bear to viviparous or real quadrupeds.

As to the neutral salts contained in these insects, their quantity is exceedingly small, and it is no easy matter to extract them. M. Thouvenel asserts, that wood-lice and earth-worms, *lumbrici*, always afforded him calcareous muriate, and muriate of potash; whereas, in ants and cantharides, these two bases, of which the last always appeared to be the most copious, were always combined with an acid possessing the same properties as the phosphoric acid. It is to be observed, that this chemist has not explained, in his dissertation, the methods by which he extracted these salts, or the processes by which he ascertained their nature.

Only cantharides and wood-lice are made use of, in medicine. Wood-lice appear to act only as gentle stimulants and diuretics; and, according to M. Thouvenel's experiments, should be given in still stronger doses than are commonly prescribed of them. The juice expressed from forty or fifty living wood-lice, given in a mild drink, or mixed with the juice of some aperient plants, may be given, with happy effects, in the jaundice, serous disorders, *à serosa colluvie*, and coagulations of the milk, &c. Cantharides is one of the most potent of all medicines. M. Thouvenel himself had experience of the effects of the green waxen matter in which the virtues of these insects seem to reside: nine grains of it laid on the skin, raised a blister, full of serous matter, in the same manner as powder of cantharides. But what is most particularly worthy of notice of all the facts respecting the virtues of this powerful remedy, is, that the spiritous tincture of cantharides may be applied, with the happiest success, externally, in doses of from two drachms to two ounces and an half, in rheumatic and sciatic pains, and in the wandering gout. It heats the skin, quickens circulation, and occasions evacuation by sweat, urine, and stool, according

cording as it is applied on this or that part. Young physicians are to be cautioned against administering this medicine too rashly, internally: It has been known to occasion flushings on the skin, sweating of blood, pains in the loins and bladder, dysenteries, &c.

§ XII. *Of Honey and Wax.*

THE honey and wax prepared by bees, appear to belong to the vegetable kingdom; for these insects collect the one of these substances from the nectaria of flowers, the other from the antheræ of their stamina. But they are elaborated in a particular manner: and besides, as they are the work of bees, their properties come most naturally to be examined in the history of these insects.

Honey is a matter perfectly like the saccharine juices which we have examined as belonging to vegetables. Its colour is white or yellowish; its consistency sometimes syrupous, often soft and granulated, and its taste saccharine and aromatic. By alcohol, and even by water, with a little trouble, a real sugar may be obtained from honey. It affords, in the retort, an acid phlegm, and an oil; and its residual coal is spongy and porous, like that of the mucilages of plants. The nitric acid converts honey, as well as sugar, into oxalic acid. It dissolves very easily in water: it forms a syrup, and passes, like sugar, in the state of spiritous fermentation. It is a very agreeable article of food, and a softening, and slightly aperient medicine. Dissolved in water, and mixed with vinegar, under the name of oxymel;—it is frequently combined with some acrid plants, as in oxymel of squills, and of colchicus. It is the vehicle in
many

many medicines which bear its name, such as honey of roses, honey of water-lily, mercurial honey, &c.

Wax is a concrete, oily juice, resembling solid fixed oils, such as butter of cacao, and still more like vegetable wax. Although there can be no doubt that this substance is collected from the stamina of flowers, yet it is no less certain, that it undergoes some particular elaboration in the body of the animal; for Reaumur found it impossible to form flexible wax of the powder of flowers. The wax which composes the honey-combs of bees is yellow, and of an insipid taste. The action of the dew and the atmosphere whitens it, when exposed to it in thin plates: the oxygenated muriatic acid whitens it very speedily. It becomes soft by a gentle heat, melts, and forms a transparent oily fluid: by cooling, it becomes solid and opaque. When heated in contact with air, it kindles as soon as it becomes volatile: and this is the effect of the wick in candles. When distilled in a retort, it affords sebatic acid, and an oil which is at first fluid, but afterwards fixes in the receiver, and takes the consistency of butter. The quantity of the coal remaining is very trifling, and it is very difficult to incinerate. The butter of wax, after being several times rectified, becomes fluid and volatile.

White wax is not liable to be altered by the air: it acquires a colour in the course of a certain time. It dissolves in oils, giving them consistency. When melted with these fluids by a gentle heat, it forms the medicines called *cerates*. Alcohol does not act upon wax. Acids blacken it: alkalis combine with it; and thus reduce it to a saponaceous state.

Wax is used in many of the arts; and in pharmacy, in the preparation of pomatum, ointments, and plasters.

§ XIII. *Of Silk-Worms, the Bombic Acid, and Silk.*

THE silk-worm, especially in a chrysalis state, contains an acid liquor in a cell near the anus. M. Chauffier, of the academy of Dijon, obtained this acid both by squeezing the juice of the chrysalis through a cloth; and precipitating the mucilage with alcohol, and by infusing the chrysalis in alcohol. When the acid is separated by alcohol, it carries it with it through the filter; and there remains on the paper an orange-coloured fat oil, a gummy matter, and a little gluten. To obtain the bombic acid in a state of purity, the alcohol must be distilled: on that occasion the alcohol is volatilized, and the acid only remains in the retort. This acid is very pungent, and of an amber yellow colour: its nature and combinations are unknown.

Many other insects likewise contain acid. It has been remarked by M. Bonnet, that the large caterpillar of the willow emits a liquor of considerable acidity. I have often observed the buprestes and staphylini to communicate a red colour to the blue paper with which boxes containing them were lined. M. Chauffier has likewise obtained an acid from the grasshopper, the red bug, and the lampyris, or glittering worm.

Silk appears to be only a sort of dried gummy matter: It differs from vegetable substances, 1. In affording ammoniac by distillation: 2. In affording azotic gas with nitric acid: 3. In affording a peculiar oil, which is separated from it when the nitric converts it into oxalic acid, as has been shown by M. Berthollet. It seems to be a compound, consisting of a vegetable mucilage, with a peculiar animal oil, which renders it pliant, ductile, and elastic.

§ XIV. *Of*

§ XIV. Of Resin Lac.

THE name of *gum lac* has been improperly given to a dark-red resinous substance, deposited on the branches of trees by a species of ant peculiar to the East Indies. This substance appeared to Geoffroy to be a sort of nidus in which those ants deposited their eggs. In fact, stick lac, when broken, appears full of small, regular cavities, or cells, containing small oblong bodies, which Geoffroy considered as embryo ants. He thought the colour of the lac owing to this animal matter. The lac he considered as a real wax; yet, its dryness, the aromatic smell which it exhales when burning, and its solubility in alcohol, render it more like resin than wax. According to the same writer, it affords a sort of butter by distillation.—In commerce, stick lac, grain lac, and shell lac, are distinguished from each other. It is to be observed, that many other colouring substances, particularly red animal or vegetable fæcula, when prepared in a particular manner for dyeing, are called *lac*. In the Levant, lac resin is used in dyeing cloth and skins. It is the basis of sealing-wax. A tincture is formed from it with spirit of cochlearia. It enters into troches of amber, dentifrice powders and opiates, odorous pills, &c.

§ XV. Of Kermes.

KERMES, or chermes, *coccus insectorius*, was formerly considered, by naturalists, as a tubercle or excrescence from plants. More accurate observation has since shewn it

to be the female of an insect, which Geoffroy ranks among the hemiptera. This female insect fixes on the leaves of the holm-oak : after being fecundated, it extends itself, dies, and, in a short time, loses the insect form. It has the appearance of a brown cap, inclosing a great many eggs. This cap was formerly used in dyeing ; cochineal now supplies its place. Kermes exhibits the same chemical properties with cochineal. It enters into the confectio alkermes, &c.

§ XVI. *Of Cochineal.*

COCHINEAL, like kermes, was long considered as a vegetable grain. Father Plumier was among the first who discovered this to be a mistake. In fact, this substance is the female of a hemipterous insect, which differs from the kermes in retaining its form after fixing on plants. The cochineal used in dyeing grows on the opuntia, or Indian fig-tree. It is collected in great quantities in South America. Geoffroy, who analysed it, found it to contain the same principles with kermes, and obtained ammoniac from it. The form of the insect may be distinguished, after macerating it in water.—Cochineal is used in making carmine, and in dyeing. It affords either a crimson or a scarlet colour, according as it is used. Being an extractive colouring matter, it cannot be applied to substances intended to be dyed, without a corrosive. It fixes easily on wool, and communicates to it a scarlet dye, by means of a solution of tin in muriatic acid, which decomposes the colouring extract, and contributes greatly to the brilliancy of the tinge. Macquer first taught to communicate this beautiful colour to silk. That celebrated chemist discovered a method
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of fixing the dye on this substance, by impregnating the silk with the solution of tin, before immersing it into the cochineal bath, instead of mixing the solution with the bath, as is done in dyeing wool.

§ XVII. Of Crab's Stones.

THE stony concretion, improperly called *crab's eyes*, *lapides cancerorum*, are found in pairs, in the interior and lower part of the stomach of those crustaceous insects. They are round, convex on one side, concave on the other, and disposed between the two membranes of the ventricle of the animal. As they are found only at the time when the crab changes its skin and stomach, and are gradually destroyed as the new covering of the insect gains consistency, it has been thought, with great appearance of probability, that they contribute to the reproduction of the calcareous substance which forms the base of the shell of the animal.

These stones have no taste: they contain a small quantity of gelatinous matter. They are prepared for use, by washing them several times, and levigating them with a little water, to reduce them to a soft paste; which is wrought into little balls, and then dried. As the water with which these stones are washed takes up the gelatinous matter, what remains is nothing but an earthy substance. When prepared in this manner, they produce a lively effervescence with all acids, and are precisely of the same nature with chalk. Their only virtue is that of absorbing acid matters in the primary passages. That opinion which ranks this substance among aperient, diuretic, and cordial medicines, is equally ill-founded with many other fanciful opinions which have been entertained concerning the virtues of animal substances.

§ XVIII. *Of Coral.*

PRECISELY of the same nature is coral,—a sort of calcareous ramification, either white, rose-coloured, or red, which forms the basis of the habitation of the sea polypi. It is prepared in the same manner as crab's stones. Like those lapideous substances, it is of a calcareous nature. It enters into the confectio alkermes, pulvis gutteti, and amber troches. Numberless virtues have been ascribed to it; but unless combined with acids, it possesses no virtues, save those of a mere absorbent. Like crab's stones, it is often used, in a neutral state, with vinegar, or lemon-juice, as an aperient, a diuretic, &c.

§ XIX. *Of the true Coralline.*

THE coralline, called *sea-moss*, is, as has been said, a peculiar habitation of polypi. In the retort, it affords the same principles as animal matters: its taste is saltish, bitter, and disagreeable. It is used as a vermifuge, with good effects. To children, it is given in a powder, in dozes of four and twenty grains,—and to adults, in dozes of two drachms or more: an anthelmintic syrup is prepared with it: it enters into worm-powders. This common coralline must not be confounded with that which is, at present called *coralline of Corsica*, *lemitho*, or *helmintocorton*: this last is a vegetable substance, a sort of fungus which forms a jelly with hot water.

C H A P. XV.

*General Result of the Analysis of Animal Substances;
Comparison of Animal Substances with Vegetable
Matters.*

IN the fourteen preceding chapters, we have given the history of the present state of chemical knowledge with respect to animal substances. Those who have cultivated chemistry during the last twenty years, will easily distinguish what the science has gained in this branch in the course of that period, and what amazing progress it has here made. Although many experiments still remain to be performed, and many discoveries to be made, in order to complete the history of animal matters; yet our present knowledge of them is much more considerable than what was formerly possessed: the proper road is, at least, discovered; and we need no longer be afraid of wandering in a wrong direction. It now appears plainly how much the physics of animal nature may be improved by chemistry, and what important services medicine may expect from it, when the two sciences proceed hand in

hand. If, after what is contained in the foregoing chapters, this assertion can be thought to need any additional proofs, these will be found in the following short recapitulation.

The matters which are called immediate principles of organic substances; that is to say, such matters as are separated from organized bodies, directly, and without alteration; bear a strong analogy to those which are extracted from vegetables. We find in animals, as well as in vegetables, extracts, a saccharine principle, insipid mucilages, acid and alkaline salts, fixed and volatile oils, resins, glutinous matter, an aromatic principle, and colouring substances. But notwithstanding this analogy, which was long ago observed, there are some remarkable differences between these immediate principles of the two kingdoms, the examination of which is of sufficient importance to engage the attention of philosophers.

1. The extract and the saccharine matter, are not near so copious in animal as in vegetable matters.

2. The mucilages of animal are somewhat different from those of vegetable bodies: they are softer, easier dried, and capable of attracting moisture from the atmosphere; they form into a jelly by cooling; their taste is stronger, too, and they become sour, and putresc much sooner.

3. The fixed oils of the animal kingdom are also different from those of vegetables. They are found in certain cells, in much larger quantities: they are always more or less concrete, and often susceptible of desiccation and crystallization.

4. Volatile oils and resins are in general much less copious among animals than among vegetables. It would appear, that nature has carefully removed from the sensible and irritable organs of animals, those acrid substances

stances which would have continually stimulated the fibres: even in vegetables, they are disposed near the exterior tunics.

5. Albuminous matter, liable to concretion by heat, though to be found among the juices of vegetables, is less copious in them than in animals, all whole parts generally contain a considerable quantity of it.

6. The substance of the fibres of animals, though somewhat similar to the gluten of flower, is however more tenacious and elastic; and besides, its proportion is so considerable, that were there no other difference between animals and vegetables, this alone might well engage the attention, and employ the industry of physiologists. All the muscles or organs of motion are composed of it; and as animals display motive powers which are not observed in vegetables, the parts in which those motive powers reside, must be essentially different from the motionless bodies of plants.

7. But animal differ still more from vegetable matters, in the nature of the saline substances which they contain. Besides the salts and radical principles of saline bodies in animal matters, of the same nature with those which vegetables contain, such as lime, soda, the muriatic, oxalic, malic, benzoic, sebacic, and phosphoric acids; they afford also the lactic, saccholactic, lithic, formic, and bomic acids, whose nature is not known, but which do not appear to exist in vegetables. In animals, too, the principles from which ammoniac acid is formed, exist in greater abundance than in vegetables; and this is what most eminently distinguishes animal from vegetable matters. The principles requisite to the formation of ammoniac and the prussic acid, azote, hydrogen, and carbone, are even so copious in animal substances, that these compounds are very often ready formed, especially

in animals a short time after death. I have found Prussian blue in putrid animal matters. I have even seen the blood of a sick person, which was very much altered, assume a bright blue colour, on exposure to the air. But it must be acknowledged, that vegetables likewise contain the principles of the prussic acid, though not in so great abundance. As to ammoniac, its being formed much easier, and much more frequently in animal matters than in vegetables, shows that the former contain its principles in much greater abundance than the latter: And in fact, M. Berthollet has proved, that those matters afford a much greater quantity of azotic gas than the others, with the nitric acid. I have also proved, that after the azotic gas is extracted from animal substances, they no longer afford ammoniac. It is therefore to this principle they owe their property of affording, either by a natural or an artificial analysis, a great quantity of this alkaline salt.

If we enquire, then, what are the more simple primary principles of which those immediate principles are composed; it will be found, that the only component principles of animal matters, as well as of vegetable substances, are, hydrogene, carbone, azote, and oxigene. These bodies, which, as they have not yet been decomposed, may be said to be in some measure elementary, appear to constitute, by various combinations with one another, oils, acids, mucilages, the fibrous part, &c. These more immediate principles, again, differ from each other only in the number and the proportions in which the primary substances are combined in them. But, as animal matters, though consisting in general of the same principles with vegetable substances, are however really different in their properties; the difference must be owing to their containing the primary principles in different

ferent proportions. The superior proportion in which animal matters contain the principle of azote, accounts for a great many of those differences: it explains why animal substances afford a great deal of ammoniac by the action of fire; why they putrefy so soon; why they are necessary to the production of acid of nitre, &c.—The only thing which now remains to be enquired into, is, What change vegetable matters undergo, when they pass into animal bodies? For it is certain, that none but vegetable matters are proper for the nourishment of animals, or convertible into animal substance. It is first to be observed, that many of the immediate principles of vegetables pass unaltered into the bodies of animals, still retaining their peculiar nature,—or at least suffer but very little alteration; such, particularly, are various salts, fixed oils, &c. But the different sorts of mucilage, the gluten, and colouring substances, manifestly undergo a change of nature: the gummy matter becomes gelatinous, and the gluten is converted into the fibrous part; the base of azotic gas, or azote, becomes fixed in those substances, and combines with them in a large proportion: and the fixation of this principle seems to convert vegetable into animal matter. This change, and the formation of the different animal substances, should chiefly engage the attention of physiologists: this, in short, is the great problem with regard to animal nature which remains to be solved. Analysis has already supplied some valuable facts towards this solution; but many more are still wanting: and it is only by accurate chemical processes, that we can hope to obtain a sufficient number for the accomplishment of so desirable a purpose.

C H A P. XVI.

Of the Putrefaction of Animal Substances.

VEGETABLE matters, though liable to be decomposed, and even entirely destroyed by putrid fermentation, are, however, far from being so liable to that intestine motion as animal matters. The putrefaction of these last matters is much more rapid than that of the others, and exhibits very different phænomena. All the fluids, and all the soft parts of animals, are alike subject to it; but many vegetable matters seem to be entirely secure from it,—or, at least, it takes place on them very slowly, and with very great difficulty.

The putrefaction of animals, which one cannot help considering, with Boerhaave, as a real fermentation, is one of the most important phænomena in nature, and, at the same time, very difficult to understand. All the researches of philosophers, from the days of Lord Bacon of Verulam, who saw its importance, to the present time, have explained only a few circumstances, and examined only the general phænomena of putrefying matters.

Beccher,

Beccher, Hales, Stahl, Pringle, Macbride, Gaber, Baumé, the respectable Author of the *Essays on Putrefaction*, and the Authors of the *Dissertations on Antiseptics*, which obtained prizes from the Academy of Dijon in the year 1767, have observed the phænomena which attend the putrid alteration of substances, and described them with sufficient care. But, from the account which we are about to give of what is known concerning this matter, it will appear, that a great number of future experiments are necessary, to make us acquainted with all the particulars of what passes in this operation of nature.

Every fluid, or soft extract of an animal body, when exposed to the temperature of sixty-five degrees, or somewhat more, undergoes, with more or less rapidity, the following alterations: Its colour becomes pale, its consistency is relaxed: If a solid part, such as flesh, it becomes soft, and exsudes a serous matter, the colour of which is very soon altered; its organization is destroyed; its smell becomes insipid and disagreeable; by degrees, this altered substance decreases in bulk, and its smell becomes ammoniacal. After this, if it be preserved in a close vessel, the putrefaction appears to proceed more slowly; none but an alkaline, pungent smell is felt from it:—the matter effervesces with acids, and turns the syrup of violets green. But, when air is admitted, the urinous exhalation goes off, and a peculiar, insufferable putrid smell rises from it with a degree of impetuosity: this smell continues for a long time, penetrates every where, and seems to affect the bodies of animals, like a fermenting substance capable of altering their fluids. This smell is corrected, and in some measure confined, by the ammoniac. After the volatilization of the ammoniac, the putrefaction proceeds with new energy: the putrefying
mass

mass suddenly swells, and appears filled with bubbles of an elastic fluid ; but soon shrinks a-new : its colour is altered, and the fibrous texture of the flesh is now scarce distinguishable : it is changed into a soft matter, of the consistency of a poultice, and either brown or greenish : its smell is insipid and nauseous, but acts with great energy on animal bodies. This odorous principle by degrees loses its strength : the fluid part of the flesh becomes, in some measure, consistent : its colour becomes deeper ; and it is at last reduced to a friable matter, half-dry, yet somewhat deliquescent ; which, by friction with the finger, breaks into a coarse powder, like earth. This is the last state that has been observed of the putrefaction of animal substances ; they take a considerable time to reach this point, which is, however, sometimes longer, sometimes shorter. Eighteen months, nay two or even three years are scarce sufficient for the complete destruction of the whole texture of an animal body exposed to the air ; and the length of time which passes before the entire destruction of carcases buried in the ground, has not been yet ascertained. Not to speak of bodies which become dry in certain soils, and remain without suffering farther alteration,—many facts prove, that dead bodies buried in moist earth, are not destroyed even in the space of 30 years.

From these particulars, it follows, 1. That the circumstances necessary to excite and carry on the putrefaction of animal substances, are, the contact of air, heat, moisture, and rest or inactivity ;—masses of animal matter, in order to putrefy, must be subject to all these circumstances : 2. That ammoniac is one of the products of putrefaction, and is formed during the fermentation ; as it did not before exist ready-formed in those substances : 3. That the putrefaction, accomplished by an internal motion peculiar

cular to organized bodies, may be compared to the action of fire, as has been remarked by M. Goddard; and considered as a spontaneous decomposition, as thinks M. Baumé; differing from that action only in taking place more slowly: 4. That in this natural operation, the proximate principles of animals react on each other with the help of water and heat, which first excite the emotion; and accordingly, the newly-formed volatile matters are, by degrees, dissipated, in the order of their volatility, till nothing is left at the end of the putrefaction, but an insipid, and seemingly earthy residue: 5. That the putrid exhalation, the character of which is so well distinguished by the olfactory nerves, and which acts with such energy on the animal œconomy, is to be considered as one of the principal products of putrefaction, since it is peculiar to this operation, and not observed in any other natural phænomenon; and since, besides, it appears capable of exciting a putrefactive emotion in all other animal substances exposed to its action. As to the nature of this fugitive odorous substance; it is particularly on this point that our researches have made but small progress, and should be farther prosecuted. What we know of it, proves it to be extremely volatile, subtle, and penetrating in its nature; and that pure air, water in a large proportion, and acid gases are capable of moderating its effects. Although it must not be confounded with carbonic acid gas, a great deal of which is disengaged from putrefying bodies, and to the disengagement of which alone Macbride ascribed the cause of this natural phænomenon; and although it must not be considered as resembling either the hydrogenous gas which is disengaged from putrefying bodies, or the luminous matter which sparkles on the surface of putrid animal fibres, and renders them phosphoric; yet it cannot be denied, that there subsist be-
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tween it and those substances some pretty strong relations, as it invariably accompanies them, is equally subtle and volatile, and acts with the same energy on the organs of animals.

We may observe, with M. de Boissieu, that there are four different degrees in the putrid fermentation of animal substances.

The first, which that philosopher calls *tendency to putrefaction*, consists in a slight alteration, which appears to take place by the diffusion of a sort of musty smell, and the softening of the substances.

The second degree, that of *putrefaction commencing*, is sometimes indicated by marks of acidity. Matters in this degree of putrefaction, lose a part of their weight, become soft, and give out serous matter, if in close vessels; but, if exposed to the open air, they rather become dry and dark-coloured.

In the third degree, that in which *putrefaction has made some progress*, the putrescent matters exhale an ammoniacal smell, mixed with a putrid and nauseous smell: they are then dissolved, and their colour more and more altered; and they at the same time suffer a loss of weight, and decrease in bulk.

Lastly, the fourth degree, that in which *putrefaction appears compleated*, is distinguished by the ammoniac's being now entirely dissipated, and no trace of it remaining: the foetid smell is now fainter, and the weight and bulk of the putrefied substances are considerably diminished: a gelatinous mucous matter is separated from them; they become gradually dry, and are at last reduced to a friable, earthy matter.

Such are the general phænomena observable in the putrefaction of animal substances; but they are far from taking place uniformly in all instances of the putrefaction
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of animal substances. In the first place, there is a wide distinction between the manner in which parts of the living bodies of animals putrefy, and that in which this change takes place on dead carcases. In the former, the vital functions modify the phænomena of this alteration in a particular manner: physicians have frequently occasion to observe the differences between these two states of animal bodies, in respect to putrefaction. Besides, every different humour, every different solid part in an animal body putrefies in a peculiar manner. The muscular, membranous or parenchymatous texture of the organs,—the oily, mucilaginous or lymphatic nature of the humours,—their consistency,—their state with respect to that of the animal to which they belong,—all influence the emotion of putrefaction, and modify it in a thousand different ways, which it would perhaps be impossible to discriminate. Lastly, the state of the air, its temperature, its elasticity, its weight, its dryness or moisture, the particular local situation of the putrefying substance, and the very form of the vessel in which it is contained, are all likewise to be taken into account; for all these circumstances contribute to diversify the phænomena of this spontaneous decomposition of bodies. It must therefore be acknowledged, that we are not yet acquainted with more than the outlines of the history of the putrefaction of animal substances; and that, to fill these up, a long series of researches and experiments is requisite.

Those phænomena of putrefaction which *have* been observed, shew that it is owing originally to water: most probably, that fluid is decomposed; and its oxigene combining with the azote of the animal substances, thereby produces the nitric acid which they are so frequently found to contain; and its hydrogene, again, may unite
with

with another part of the azote, which is very copious in those matters, to form the ammoniac that is disengaged. The oily principle is separated, and remains longest unaltered. The calcareous phosphate, and phosphate of soda, in union with a portion of pure carbonaceous matter, and perhaps a little fat matter, seem to compose the apparently earthy residue of putrefied animal matters.

We have, as yet, described only the phænomena which take place on animal matters, when they are decomposed by putrefaction in the open air. As the phænomena of that decomposition in different media, tend to illustrate the revolutions which take place on our globe, let us consider, for a little, what happens to those matters, when they putrefy in water, or under ground.

The changes which take place in water are not quite the same with those above described. Animal bodies immersed in that fluid, first swell: elastic fluids are next disengaged from them: the water dissolves a great part of their principles, decomposes another part, and disperses those constituent principles over large masses of water: accordingly, many people have exposed their dead carcases in rivers, and trusted to the waters for their destruction.

Different phænomena take place when animal bodies are buried under ground. Observations, most of which were accidentally made, have shewn, that they are more rapidly or more slowly destroyed, according to the nature of the soil. Bodies are sometimes found to be totally destroyed in a little time; and sometimes they are found in a good state of preservation, even after lying a long time under ground. It may be easily conceived, that where the earth is very porous and light, and the animal matter disposed near the surface, air, and especially water, will then obtain easy access, and contribute to its decomposition.

position. In opposite circumstances, the decomposition must naturally be much slower. Dry earth, for instance, absorbs water from bodies, renders them dry, and converts them into mummies. A sandy soil, in which bodies are exposed to the impression of a scorching sun, produces a similar effect, giving them a degree of hardness which renders them secure against destruction for ages. Argillaceous earth, again, retains water, and therefore favours the putrefaction of bodies. In cases in which it takes place, either sooner or later, the fluids and solids are at last reduced almost entirely into azotic gas, carbonic acid gas, hydrogenous gas, and ammoniac gas. All these elastic fluids, as they filtrate through the earth, are in part stopped in their progress, and rendered fixed; and accordingly render the mould black, fat, and foetid. These products of putrefaction saturate the mould in some measure, till they are at length carried off by the dissolving action of water and air, evaporation by heat, and absorption by vegetables. Thus, nature, by a slow decomposition, reduces animal bodies, after they are deprived of life, into more simple substances, fitted to enter into new combinations.

This decomposition considered, as it takes place, all over the globe, at once, on the earth, in the air, and in water, gives rise to some important changes in nature, which philosophers should observe and ascertain. When we observe the wide extent of the sea, and the immense number of animals by which it is inhabited, it appears, that vast quantities of animals perish in it, which, by their spontaneous decomposition, must give rise to a number of phænomena that have been, as yet, but too little examined. What becomes of all those remains of animal bodies? What successive revolutions do they undergo? Sea-water is known to contain muriate and sulphate of

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soda, lime, and magnesia: No doubt, muriatic acid, magnesia, lime, and soda, are continually forming in this laboratory; nay, perhaps, the formation of many of these substances may be carried on by marine animals, during their lives; but others of them can be owing only to the decomposition of the same animals after death. It cannot be denied, that the strata of calcareous matters, which compose, as it were, the shell or crust of our globe over a very considerable part of its surface, have been originally produced from the remains of marine animals, more or less broken by the action of the waters; that those strata have been primarily deposited at the bottom of the sea; and that bitumen, and earth-coal which is deposited in very thin and extensive strata, both of which substances occupy a part of the globe, have been originally produced in this manner. In the seas, therefore, there is a decomposition of water constantly carried on: innumerable agents are ever separating its principles, and suffering alterations themselves. Immense masses of chalk, from time to time deposited on the bottom, absorb and fix, that is, convert into solid substance a part of the liquid with which that capacious reservoir is constantly filled.

From these reflections on the decomposition of animal substances, in the earth, the air, and the waters, with all the assemblage of facts which chemistry supplies concerning it; it follows, that the exterior strata of the globe are now different from what they originally were: that it is increasing in solidity and extent by the successive and uninterrupted accumulation of calcareous matter from the destruction of animal bodies: that the soil of the earth which we inhabit is modern and factitious: that minerals are not to be considered as forming a part of this soil: that it has been produced from a slow decomposition

position of animal and vegetable bodies : that water is constantly diminishing in quantity, and assuming a new form : that one part of decomposed water forms one of the bases of animal and vegetable bodies : that another part enters, in a solid form, into the calcareous strata of the globe : that the atmosphere must have been influenced and modified by all those changes : that vegetables are continually influencing the state of atmospheric air ; and that the light of the sun acts an important part in the production of all these mutual alterations. Although it may appear impossible to determine the length of time in which the decomposition of water, vegetation, fermentation, putrefaction, the formation of saline matters, bitumens, and calcareous substances, and their modifications, have been successively carried on ; yet the modern discoveries with which chemistry and natural philosophy have been enriched, shew, that those phænomena have taken place at different periods ; that they continue to modify the present state of our planet : And that, if matter *be*, as great philosophers assert, only one substance, as to its mass and intimate nature ; yet its form is continually varying by new combinations, and gradually experiencing great revolutions ; of which modern chemistry,—and modern chemistry alone, can ascertain the cause, and may, one day, determine the ultimate effects.

CONTINUATION

Of the ANIMAL KINGDOM.

Of the Methodical Classification and the Natural History of Animals.

AS the inferior animals on our globe are so numerous, it would be impossible for mankind to distinguish them from one another, or gain any considerable knowledge of their nature and habits, if they did not exhibit remarkable differences, which render it easy to establish distinctions among them. Naturalists have always been sensible of the utility of those differences; and by dividing animals according to them, either into more or fewer classes, have happily formed what are called *methods*. Though it be certain that no such classifications exist in nature, and all the individuals which she has produced

duced form one continued, uninterrupted series; yet they must be allowed to assist the memory, and to form truly useful guides in the study of natural history. Methods are therefore to be considered as instruments suited to our weakness, which may be happily made use of in tracing the wide field over which the stores of nature are strewed. The divisions which Aristotle established, were very general and simple; but his ingenious reflections on the internal and external organs of animals, formed the basis on which most of the first naturalists who attempted methodical divisions—such as Aldrovandus, Johnston, Charleton, Ray, &c. established them. Those naturalists have been succeeded by a number of others, by whom their methods have been improved, and much added to the knowledge which they had collected. Among the latter, those whose works are most worthy of being studied, and from which what follows here on this subject is borrowed, are Messrs Klein, Arthedi, Briffon, Daubenton, Geoffroy, &c.

After man, the organization of whose body, and the intelligence with which he is endowed, entitle him to be ranked at the head of all the animals inhabiting our globe, in a separate class,—all the other animals may be arranged in eight classes:—Quadrupeds, Cetaceous Animals, Birds, Oviparous Quadrupeds, Serpents, Fishes, Insects, and Worms, with which may be associated Polypti.

These classes might perhaps be rendered much more numerous. But, with the divisions, the difficulties of the study would be increased: and this is to be carefully avoided, in an artificial method; as such a method must owe all its value to simplicity and perspicuity. M. Daubenton, who has laboured much on the classification of animals, has arranged them in the same manner; and,

under each class, has considered the structure of the principal parts of the animals contained in it; shewing, that from man to the worm, animals become gradually more imperfect in their organization. (*See Table I. at the end of this volume.*)

In the history of animals, there are two principal objects of attention: 1. Their external forms, and the methods founded on those forms: 2. Their internal organs, and the functions for the performance of which they are destined. These two distinct objects we shall consider in two separate Sections.

S E C :

SECTION I.

A Sketch of the different Methods of the Natural History of Animals.

ARTICLE FIRST.

Of Quadrupeds. ZOOLOGY.

QUADRUPEDS are animals with four feet, whose bodies are generally covered with hair. They respire by lungs, like the human species: they have also a heart, with two ventricles: they are viviparous. Their structure, more than that of any other animals, resembles the structure of the human body. Some of them, such as the ape, and a few others, have even been ranked by Linnæus in the same class with man. That naturalist gives this class of animals the name of *mammalia*,—comprehending, also, cetaceous animals, because these, too, have breasts, and suckle their young.

Although this class of animals may seem to be nearly of the same order with man; yet, between the two, there are some striking differences, which we may here enumerate:—The horizontal disposition of their bodies, the form of the extremities, the grossness of the body, the stiffness of the skin—which is either covered with hair, or with a hard and corneous crust; the prolongation of the back-bone into a tail; the flat, horizontal form of the anterior part of the cranium, the length and breadth of the ears, the extreme length and oblique disposition of the bones of the nose and the upper-jaw:—these are all properties in which this class of animals differs from the human species. The disposition of the human body, again, is elevated and perpendicular; the bone of the radius is moveable at the elbow, the fingers are separate, the thumb placed opposite to the other four, and the skin smooth and thin.—This difference of structure must evidently improve the sensibility of human beings, and render them much superior to the most perfect of the other animals.

Ancient naturalists, at the head of whom are Aristotle and Pliny, did not think of distinguishing quadrupeds any other way but by the regions which they inhabited: Accordingly, such is the inaccuracy of their descriptions, and such the uncertainty of those characteristics which they have pointed out, that we are often at a loss to discover what animals they allude to. Naturalists, sensible of the inconveniences attending this method, have since adopted a very different mode, in their descriptions of the objects of natural history. From the exterior form of the most conspicuous parts of animals, they have assumed characteristics easily discernible, and sufficient to establish certain distinctions. We shall here give an account

of

of only three artificial methods of arranging quadrupeds: those of Messrs Linnæus, Klein, and Brisson.

The METHOD of LINNÆUS.

LINNÆUS divides animals with teats, *mammalia*, into seven orders. The first comprehends those which he calls *primates*, the characteristics of which are incisory teeth in both jaws; in the upper-jaw, always four teeth; two teats on the breast; and the arms separated by a collar-bone. In this order there are four genera; namely, man *homo*, the ape *simia*, the maki *lemur* or *prosimia*, and the bat *vespertilio*. It must be acknowledged, that this method does not very well agree with nature; for there is so wide a difference between man and the bat, that it is almost shocking to class them together.

The animals of the second order are denominated *bruta*. Their characteristics are, the want of incisive teeth, feet with strong hooves, and slowness of motion in walking. This order contains six genera; the elephant *elephas*; the sea-cow *trichechus*, the sloth *bradypus*, the ant-eater *myrmecophaga*, the philodotus *manis*, and the tatou, or *dasypus*. There is a wide difference between the two former genera, and the latter four.

In the third order, which the Swedish naturalist denominates *feræ*, wild beasts, he includes all animals with paps, whose incisory teeth are of a conical form, and generally in the number of six to both jaws,—the canine teeth very long, and the molares not flattened,—their feet armed with claws,—and who, in their habits of life, are rapacious and devour their prey. In this order, there

there are ten genera; the sea-calf *phoca*, the dog *canis*, the cat *felis*, the ferret *viverra*, the weasel *mustella*, the bear *ursus*, the *didelphis*, the mole *talpa*, the mouse *forex*, and the hedgehog *erinaceus*.

The fourth order, intituled *glires*, the dormouse, is distinguished by the following characteristics. The animals belonging to it have two incisory teeth on each jaw, but no canine teeth. On their feet, they have claws which fit them for leaping. They gnaw the bark and roots of trees, &c. This order comprehends six genera; the porcupine *hystria*, the hare *lepus*, the beaver *castor*, the rat *mus*, the squirrel *sciurus*, and the American bat, named by Linnæus *noctilio*.

Under his fifth order, *pecora*, this naturalist comprehends all those quadrupeds which have incisory teeth on the under-jaw, but none on the upper, which have their hooves divided, and which chew the cud. The camel *camelus*, the animal which affords musk *moschus*, the stag *cervus*, the goat *capra*, the sheep *ovis*, and the cow *bos*, are the six genera of which this order consists.

Under the denomination of *belluæ*, the sixth order, he comprehends quadrupeds with obtuse, incisory teeth, and hooves on their feet. The four genera of which this order consists, namely, the horse *equus*, the river-horse *hippopotamus*, the hog *sus*, and the unicorn *rhinoceros*, are sufficiently distinguished from one another, by the number of their teeth, and the form of the feet.

Lastly, the seventh order, comprehending cetaceous animals, *cete*, is distinguished from the other orders by the form of the feet of these animals, which resemble the feet of swimming animals. As, however, we agree in opinion with several modern naturalists, who think
that

that cetaceous animals should be ranked in a particular class, we shall speak of them after quadrupeds.

The method of Linnaeus appears to be in many instances defective;—not only in bringing man and the bat, &c. improperly together, and in dividing with equal impropriety animals so nearly resembling each other as the rat and the mouse, &c.; but its divisions are far from being sufficiently numerous; nor will they help the student to distinguish any particular quadruped: And this is what must constitute the great merit of a system of arrangement;—this is indeed the only advantage that can be gained by it.

KLEIN'S METHOD.

KLEIN divides quadrupeds into two great orders; the first, comprehending quadrupeds with hooves, *pedes ungulati sive cheliferi*; the second such as have their feet digitated, *pedes digitati*.

The first order is divided into five families, which are distinguished from each other according to the division of their hooves. The first family, called *monochela*, (in French *solipede*) *single-hoofed*, comprehends the genus of the horse.—The second, the individuals of which are distinguished by the name of *dichela*, consists of those quadrupeds whose hooves are parted into two, or bifurcal *bifulci*. Some of these, such as the bull, the ram, the buck, the stag, the giraffe, &c. have horns. Others again, such as the boar, the hog, the babyroussa, are without horns.—The third family contains the *trichela*, or animals

mals which have the hoof parted into three ; of which there are none but the *rhinoceros*.—In the fourth family, whose peculiar characteristic is, to have the hoof parted into four, *tetrachela*, there is only the hippopotamus. —The elephant, the only animal whose foot is parted into five divisions, constitutes the fifth family, *pentachela*.

The second order of quadrupeds, containing those which are digitated, is likewise divided into five families. The first consisting of animals with two toes on the foot, *didactyla*, comprehends the camel, and the sloth of Ceylon.—The second family, animals with three toes on the foot, *tridactyla*, consists of the sloth and the ant-eater.—In the third, Klein comprehends, under the name of *tetradactyla*, animals with four toes, tatous or amadilloes, and the *cavia*, which seems to be a sort of rabbit.—The fourth family, characterised by having five toes, *pentadactyla*, is more numerous than any of the former families: it contains the rabbit, the squirrel, the dormouse, the rat and the mouse, the didelphis, the mole, the bat, the weasel, the porcupine, the dog, the wolf, the fox, the *coati*, the cat, the tiger, the lion, the bear, and the ape :—a very considerable number of species are comprised under these different genera. It is to be observed, that in all these characteristics, taken from the form of the feet, Klein, in distinguishing the families, considers only the fore-part of the foot.—Lastly, the fifth family of digitated animals consists of animals whose feet are irregular in respect to the number and division of their toes, *anomalopoda* ; such as the otter, the beaver, the sea-cow, and the phocas or sea-calf.

The same objection may be made to Klein, as to Linnaeus. The families are, indeed, sufficiently distinguished from one another ; but the genera, especially those of

of the fourth family of digitated animals, cannot be well discriminated in his system.

METHOD of M. BRISSON.

M. BRISSON has avoided most of the defects of other systems, by combining together all the characteristics which had been assumed by preceding naturalists:—The number of the teeth, the want of teeth, the form of the extremities, the shape of the tail, and the nature of the appendices—such as horns, scales, and prickles. His system cannot be denied to be the most compleat, and the best contrived to help us to distinguish any quadruped, and refer it to the genus to which it belongs. His divisions are here exhibited in a table: it contains the generic characteristics of animals; and is very simple and easy.—*See Table II. at the end of this volume.*

ARTICLE - II.

Of Cetaceous Animals.

CETACEOUS animals, are great animals inhabiting the seas, which are enabled, by the structure of their lungs and blood-vessels, to live under water,—as

we shall explain more particularly in the history of respiration. Being viviparous, they resemble quadrupeds in the structure of their breasts, and of their internal organs in general; but the form of their extremities is different,—as these spread into fins: And they have, besides, two apertures in the upper part of the head, through which they spout water to a considerable height. These holes are called by naturalists *spiracula*. M. Daubenton translates this word (*events*) *vents*. These animals are far from being equally numerous with quadrupeds. M. Brisson distinguishes them, 1. into Cetaceous animals' wanting teeth, such as the whale *balæna*; 2. Cetaceous animals which have teeth only in the upper-jaw, such as the *cachalot*, *monodon vel monoceros*; 3. Cetaceous animals with teeth only in the under-jaw, such as the narval or unicorn of the sea, *physeter*; 4. Lastly, Cetaceous animals having teeth in both jaws, such as the dolphin, *delphinus*.

ARTICLE III.

Of Birds. ORNITHOLOGY.

BIRDS are animals with two feet, which move through the air by means of wings, are covered with feathers, and have bills of a corneous substance. Many facts concerning the forms of the bills, the structure of the feathers,

thers, the motions and the habits of these animals, are highly worthy of attention. The most important of those facts will be given in an abridgement of physiology, which is to follow in this volume. At present, we are only concerned to give the external characteristics by which the animals are distinguished, and systematically arranged. The first philosophers who treated of this part of natural history, established no distinctions among birds, but such as depended on their inhabiting in different situations. They distinguished them into birds of the woods, birds of the plains, birds of the thickets, sea fowls, river-fowls, and birds frequenting lakes, &c. Others have distinguished them by the species of food on which they live,—into birds of prey, granivorous birds, &c. &c.

But the moderns who have formed systems of natural history, have taken a very different way of establishing characteristic differences among them. Linnæus has divided them, by the form of the bill, into six orders, in the same manner as quadrupeds, with which he compares them. But those divisions do not appear to be sufficiently numerous; especially as the number of the species of birds is much more considerable than that of quadrupeds. Buffon makes the quadrupeds which are known, amount to two hundred different species; but the species of birds to fifteen hundred or two thousand.—We shall here speak only of Klein's and M. Brisson's systematical arrangements of birds.

Klein divides birds into eight families, according to the form of their feet. The first, under the name of *didactylæ*, consists of such as have two toes on the foot:—the only bird belonging to this division is the ostrich.—The second consists of *tridactylæ*, such as the casuary, the bustard, the lapwing, the plover.—The third,

third, the *tetradactylæ*, have two toes before, and two behind, such as the parrot, the woodpecker, the cuckoo, and the king's-fisher.—The fourth comprehends the *tetradactylæ* which have three toes before, and one behind. This family is more numerous than any of the rest: it comprehends both diurnal and nocturnal birds of prey, ravens, magpies, starlings, thrushes and blackbirds, larks, red-breasts, swallows, tom-tits, woodcocks, bulfinches, rails, crossbills, gallinaceous fowls, herons, &c.—The fifth family contains *tetradactylæ* having their three fore-toes connected by a membrane, but the toe behind separate. These birds are called *palmipedes*. This family consists of geese, ducks, sea-mews, and divers.—The sixth comprehends those *tetradactylæ* which have all the four toes connected by a membrane. They are called in Latin *planci*. The pelican, the cormorant, the fool, and the anhinga, are ranked by Klein in this family.—The seventh consists of those who have only three toes, and those connected by a membrane: they are denominated *tridactylæ palmipedes*. The guillemot, the penguin, and the albatross, belong to this family.—Lastly, the eighth consists of *tetradactylæ* having on their toes fringed or scolloped membranes. They are called also *dactylobæ*. This last family consists of the *colimba* and the coot.—Klein's method, though it descends to more particulars than that of Linnæus, is still attended with numerous difficulties as to the distinctions of the genera; especially those of the fourth family. We therefore think M. Brisson's preferable. The last, indeed; as the author has made use of the different characteristics in the same manner as in his classification of quadrupeds, appears at first sight to be very complicated; but when reduced to a table, as we have done with it, it exhibits, at one glance, all the divisions of which it consists; and any

any particular bird may be easily distinguished, by tracing those divisions.—See Table III. at the end of this volume.

ARTICLE IV.

Of Oviparous Quadrupeds.

LINNÆUS, in his system, arranged together, oviparous quadrupeds, serpents, and cartilaginous fishes, under the name of *amphibia*. But, M. Daubenton is of opinion, that the word *amphibia* cannot be properly applied to any class of animals : for it must mean animals which live either in air or in water, as long as they please ; and there is no class possessed of this property : Were the denomination, again, to be applied to all terrestrial animals capable of living for any space of time, however short, under water,—and all aquatic animals capable of living in the air,—all animals would then be amphibious. In the same class, but in two distinct orders, Linnæus ranks both oviparous quadrupeds, and serpents ; and those amphibious animals which practise swimming, he ranks among fishes.

In M. Daubenton's system, oviparous quadrupeds compose the fourth order of animals. Their organiza-

tion is by no means imperfect : for they, like the quadrupeds, cetaceous animals, and birds ranked before them, have a head, nostrils, and ears situated within the head. But, the following characteristics distinguish this class from the three preceding orders : 1. They have only one ventricle in the heart ; 2. Their blood is almost cold ; 3. They respire only after long intervals ; 4. They are oviparous, and consequently without teats.—The last of these characteristics is common to them with the four following orders of animals. Lastly, no other animals but they, have four feet, without hair.

M. Daubenton observes, that the differences among the various genera belonging to this order are so considerable, as to render it impossible to communicate any general notions common to them all. Of this he treats in the history of each particular genus, under the words, tortoises, lizards, toads, frogs, in the second volume of the *Natural History of Animals*, which forms a part of the *Encyclopædie Methodique*.

The classification and the characteristics which that celebrated naturalist has given of the order of oviparous quadrupeds, is one of the most compleat and the best executed parts of the natural history of animals : And I have, therefore, formed into a table, all M. Daubenton's divisions, from classes to species, as the number of the species is not above 100.—(See *Table IV.*) Since the publication of M. Daubenton's work, the Count de la Cèpede has published a very compleat and accurate work on oviparous quadrupeds, in which he exhibits a peculiar method of arrangement. This method is laid down in the fifth table, which is extracted from M. de la Cèpede's work.

ARTICLE V.

Of Serpents.

SERPENTS form the fifth order in M. Daubenton's division of animals. These are sufficiently distinguished, by having their bodies covered with scales, and being without feet or fins. They have a head, nostrils, ears within the head, only one ventricle in the heart, and their blood is almost cold; they respire only after long intervals, and produce eggs, like oviparous quadrupeds. Serpents have neither neck nor shoulders. The scales with which they are covered, are of three sorts: They are either rhomboidal, and rising over each other like tiles,—to which form and disposition, Linnæus gives the name of *squamme*; or else of an oblong square form, and disposed one beside another,—and these Linnæus calls *scuta* or plates;—when very small, and still of this form, they are denominated *scutella* or small plates: Or, lastly, they form rings, round the body of the serpent,—as in the amphibia.

Though serpents be without feet, yet they often move nimbly enough, by fixing the fore part of the body, raising the middle, and then bringing forward the hinder part; when they rest on the tail, and spring to a distance

to attack their prey. They change their skin once or twice a year.

Some serpents are venomous. Of 131 species of which Linnæus takes notice, 23 are by that naturalist reckoned dangerous. All of these animals whose bite is dangerous, have, on each side of the upper-jaw, a tooth considerably larger than their other teeth; at the root of which is a cell filled with a peculiar fluid, which they pour into the wound through a pipe in the tooth.

It cannot now be considered as a matter of doubt, after the testimony of so many respectable authorities, that there are species of serpents of a very extraordinary size. M. Adanson, from a number of very accurate facts, fixes the size of the largest serpents, at forty or fifty feet in length, and a foot and an half in thickness.

Of all naturalists, M. Laurenti has entered the most minutely into the classification of serpents. He distributes them into 17 genera. But M. Daubenton rejects the system of that naturalist, because it is so exceedingly difficult to recognize the distinctive characters; adopting, in preference to it, that of Linnæus.—The sixth table, at the end of this volume, contains the divisions and characteristics of serpents, from genera, to no fewer than one hundred and twenty-seven species which have been enumerated by M. Daubenton.

ARTICLE VI.

Of Fishes. ICHTHYOLOGY.

FISHES are a very different sort of animals from those which we have hitherto been considering: the structure of their internal organs is altogether peculiar, as will be shewn in our abstract of physiology. They differ from other animals, in having, instead of feet, fins which enable them to move in water,—and in respiring water instead of air. It is much more difficult to gain a knowledge of fishes, than of other animals; and accordingly, the natural history of fishes is very imperfect.

In order to understand the methodical division of these animals, which we are about to propose from Artedi, Linnæus, and M. Gouan, it will be necessary for the reader to take a hasty view of the anatomy of the exterior parts of their bodies. The bodies of fishes may be divided into three parts: the head, the trunk of the body, and the fins.

The heads of these animals are of various forms:—Either horizontally or laterally flattened, or round; either naked or scaly; smooth, or overspread with asperities, tubercles, &c.—The lips have been observed to

be either fleshy or bony, with appendices or barbels, soft, and very easily moveable : the teeth are fixed, either to the jaws, the palate, the tongue, or the gullet : their eyes are two in number, motionless, and without eyelids : the channels of their nostrils are double on both sides : they have an opening at the gills or bronchiæ : they are provided with bones, either round, triangular, or square, to shut this opening : the bronchial membrane is placed under these, and supported by several other bones, in the form of a bow, the number of which varies from two to ten. This membrane folds back on the bones above it ; and it is an object of importance to examine the varieties of its structure,—as the characteristics of genera are often taken from the number or form of the radii.

The form of the trunk varies, as well as that of the head. It is either round, or globular, or oblong, or flat, or angular. In it are to be observed the lateral lines, which seem to divide each side of the body into two parts :—The thorax, situated immediately below the gills, at the upper extremity of the trunk, and filled with the heart and the pulmonary vessels :—the belly, the sides of which extend from the head to the tail, and which contains the stomach, the liver, the air-bladder, and the genital organs :—the orifice of the anus, common to the intestines, the bladder, and the organs of generation :—and lastly, the tail, which terminates the trunk, and of which the form and size are various.

The fins, *pinnae natatoriæ*, consist of membranes, supported on small radii, of which, some are hard and bony, and terminate in a thorny point,—which has procured to the fishes to which it belongs, the name of *acanthopterygii* from Artedi ; others are flexible, soft, obtuse, and seemingly cartilaginous,—and characterise the fishes

to

to which they belong, as *malacopterygii*. The fins are distinguished into five sorts, according to their situations; dorsal, pectoral, abdominal, on the anus, and on the tail.

The dorsal fin maintains the fish in equilibrium. It is diversified by situation, figure, number, proportion, &c.

The fins of the thorax are situated at the opening of the gills: they are two in number: they serve the purpose of arms, and sometimes even of wings: they differ in situation, extent, figure, &c.

The fins of the belly are more particularly worthy of notice; for, from their situation has the celebrated Linnæus taken his distinctive characteristics in classing fishes. These fins are situated on the lower part of the body, immediately above the anus, and always lower and nearer each other than the pectoral fins. They are sometimes wanting; and as Linnæus compares them to feet, he calls such fishes as want these fins *apodes*. Most fishes, however, are possessed of them; but they are not always inserted at the same place. When they are situated either before or immediately under the opening of the gills and the pectoral fins, both they and the fishes to which they belong, are called *jugular*. When fixed to the thorax, and behind the opening of the gills, they are called *thoracic*: And, in Linnæus's system, fishes of this structure are discriminated by the same name. Lastly, when placed under the belly, and nearer the anus than the pectoral fins, they are called *abdominal*; and, in like manner as before, communicate their name to the order of fishes which have them in this situation.

The fin of the anus is an odd one: it occupies, either in whole or in part, the region between the anus and

the tail. It is liable to varieties of form, number, and size. Yet, none but the golden-fish of China, are known to have two of these fins.

The tail fin is disposed vertically at the extremity of the body, and terminates the tail. The fish uses it as a rudder, moving it, so as to change the direction in which it swims, at pleasure. It is likewise subject to some varieties in its form, its adherence or connexions, its extent, &c.

After this account of the anatomy of the exterior parts of fishes, we may pass to the systematic divisions in which naturalists have arranged them. Before Artedi, no naturalist had attempted a systematic arrangement of fishes; although classifications of the other animals had been already formed. This philosopher was the first who offered to the world, a system of ichthyology formed on the nature of the fins, as hard or soft, pointed or obtuse, and on the form of the gills. He afterwards engaged in a design to extend the divisions by characteristics taken from other parts; but was prevented by a premature death, from accomplishing his design. Linnæus contrived to form a system of ichthyology, on the variations of the position of the fins of the belly: And M. Gouan, a celebrated professor of Montpellier, has very happily combined the two systems of Artedi and Linnæus. This naturalist divides fishes first into those whose gills are perfect,—that is to say, consist of an *operculum*, and a bronchial membrane regularly organized; and those whose gills are imperfect,—that is, who want either the operculum, or the bronchial membrane, or both. The first mentioned, are those distinguished by the form of their fins.—In fact, these parts consist either of hard, pointed bones, or of soft, and seemingly cartilaginous radii. These distinctions

tions establish three different classes of fishes: 1. The *acanthopterygii*; 2. The *malacopterygii*; and, 3. The *branchiostegi*. In each of these classes, the belly-fins being either wanting, or placed on the neck, on the thorax, or on the belly; M. Gouan therefore divides each class into four orders: *apodes*, jugular, thoracic, and abdominal.

The distinctive characters of the genera, under these divisions, are taken from the form of the body, the head, the mouth, the bronchial membrane, and more especially the radii which support that membrane.—See *Table VII*.

ARTICLE VII.

Of Insects. ENTOMOLOGY.

INSECTS are distinguished by the form of their body, which seems to be divided into rings; and by two moveable horns on the fore part of the head, called *antennæ*. Insects form one of the most numerous classes of animals, on account, no doubt, of their diminutive size; for it has been observed, that the smaller animals are, so much the more numerous are they. The history of these animals is one of the most agreeable and amusing branches of natural history; perhaps, too, not the least useful; for,

for, in prosecuting it, many discoveries may be made, beneficial both to medicine and the arts.

Insects, in their manners, form, habitations, &c. display, in miniature, almost the whole œconomy and characteristics of other animals. Some insects walk like quadrupeds; others fly like birds; some swim, and live in water, like fishes; and, lastly, some leap, or trail along, like certain reptiles. This analogy might be even traced much farther, by examining, particularly, the structure of their extremities, mouth, and interior organs, &c.

Insects, considered as to external appearance, consist of three parts; an head, a corselet or breast, and a belly.

The form, size, and position of the head, are various. It is sometimes very large in proportion to the bulk of the insect, and sometimes very small: it is either round, or square, or oblong; either smooth, or overspread with small holes, or tuberculated, or covered with hair in certain places. On it are observed, 1. The antennæ, placed near the eyes, and consisting of several different, articulated, moveable pieces, like a thread, terminating either in a point, or in a mass: the form of the antennæ is to be always carefully observed; for it affords by its varieties, generic characteristics: 2. The eyes, which are of two sorts, either with facets, or in a sort of net-work, smooth and small: these organs are sometimes very large, and sometimes small; their number varies; some insects have only one eye, and are distinguished as monocular; others, such as the spider, have two, five, or even eight: 3. The mouth, which consists either of short, corneous jaws, placed laterally, and moveable towards the sides; or of a proboscis, either longer or shorter, dilated or spiral, &c.; or of a simple gap or orifice, &c. This part is often armed with small moveable appendi-
ces,

ces, denominated antennulæ or barbels, and either two or four in number.

The corselet is the breast of the insect, placed between the head and the belly. It is sometimes round, sometimes triangular, cylindrical, broad, narrow, &c. It is to be considered as a sort of cube consisting of six sides; and its form is sometimes regularly cubic. The front, or anterior extremity, is hollowed for the reception of the head. In flies, for instance, the juncture of the head to the body, at this part, is sometimes formed merely by a thread. The under extremity, again, is commonly round, and articulated with the first ring of the belly; sometimes it is joined to that part by a thread. The upper facet is sometimes flat and smooth, sometimes round, prominent, bearing appendices, tuberculated, and terminating in a jutting border: This forms what is called the bordered corselet, *thorax marginatus*.—The wings are fastened to the posterior part of this facet. It is well known, that most insects are provided with wings; but that their wings differ amazingly from each other. It may be of consequence, briefly to consider these diversities of the structure of the wings of insects; as naturalists have established on them the leading divisions of their classifications of these animals.

The wings of insects are either two or four in number. Insects having two transparent wings, such as the fly, the gnat, &c., have always, towards the part where the wing joins the body, and under it, a small filament terminating in a round button, called the *balance*; and covered with a concave, membranous appendage, called the *bowl*. In many insects, these two wings are very strong, twisted and plaited under hard, corneous, moveable sheaths, called *elytra*.—These sheaths are of various forms: some of them cover the whole belly; others are

cut

cut transversely, and cover only a part of the belly: some of them are hard; others soft: most of them have, near the place of their juncture, a small triangular piece soldered to the corselet, which is called *scutellum*; others want this small piece. Lastly, a number of insects with sheaths, have the elytra soldered so as to form seemingly but one piece, and motionless.

The wings are often four in number; they are then either membranous and transparent, as in the dragon-fly, the wasp, &c. or apparently sprinkled with a coloured dust, which, when viewed through the microscope, proves to be scales rising one over another, on the wing, as tiles on the roof of a house, *imbricatum*.

The lower part of the corselet is irregular in its form: it consists of several pieces glued one over another, and bears a part of the legs.—The number of the legs varies: Many insects have six legs; and others, such as the spider, have eight legs: some, again, have ten, like crabs; and lastly, there are some which have a still greater number. Wood-lice are observed to have sixteen; and some species of the scolopendra have from seventy to one hundred and twenty on each side. According to M. Geoffroy, the legs of those insects which have only six or eight, are fixed to the corselet; but such as possess a greater number, have a part of them inserted in the rings of the belly.

The leg of an insect consists always of three parts:—the thigh—the part next the body, the leg, and the tarsus. Besides these, there is often an intermediate piece between the body and the thigh. The tarsus consists of several pieces or rings articulated one with another: the number of these rings varies from two to five. There are even some insects which have the tarsus larger in the fore, than in the hinder legs; which establishes

blishes an analogy between the structure of these small animals and that of many quadrupeds, which have more toes on the fore than on the hinder feet. M. Geoffroy, as we shall afterwards see, has assumed a part of this character for the basis of his systematic division of insects. The tarsus is terminated by two, four, or six small claws, and has generally, on the under side, several small brushes, or spongy clues, which enable the insect to adhere even to the most polished bodies, such as ice, &c.

On each side of the corselet, there are observed, one or two oblong, oval apertures, called stigmata, by which the insect respire.

The third part of the body of an insect, is the belly. It generally consists of corneous rings, or half-rings, incasing one another. Sometimes, no such rings are observed, but the belly appears to consist all of one piece. Female insects have usually larger bellies than the male. At the extremity of the belly, are the parts of generation: On the sides, each ring but the two lowest is perforated with a stigma. At the lower part of the belly, too, many insects bear their stings; of which, some are sharp-pointed, others serrated, and others of an auger form.—They use them as weapons of defence, and as instruments for forming cells in which they may deposit their eggs.

The most singular phænomenon which insects exhibit,—which, more than any thing else, distinguishes them from most other animals,—is, their passing through different states by a sort of metamorphosis, before they become perfect insects. Some insects,—almost all those belonging to the class of *aptera*, suffer no such changes; but by far the greater number of these animals are subject to them. The insect is not of the same form with its parent, when it issues from the egg; it is then a worm,

worm, either with or without legs; and, in this state, these animals exhibit great diversities in the head and the rings. In this first state, the insect receives the name of *larva*: under this mask, it eats, grows bigger, moves, and changes its skin several times. When it attains its full size, it changes its skin for the last time; and is now no longer a worm or larva, but in a totally different form; in which it is known by the names, *nympha*, *chrysalis*, *aurelia*.

M. Geoffroy distinguishes *nymphæ* into four different species.—The first bears no resemblance to an animal.—Only a few rings are observed on its under part; and above, only some very imperfect marks of antennæ, legs, and wings.—The skin of this species of nymphæ is hard and cartilaginous; and only some of its rings are moveable.—Such are the nymphæ of butterflies, &c.

The second species of *chrysalis* exhibits the parts of the perfect animal, wrapped in a very thin soft skin.—Like that of the former species, it is immoveable. Insects with cases, insects with four naked wings, and insects with two, pass through this state.

The third species displays the parts, fairly unfolded; very conspicuous, and moveable.—Such are the chrysalides of gnats, and insects which, in the first states, pass their life under water.

Lastly, the fourth species consists of those which, in the form of the body, their legs, and antennæ, resemble the perfect insect. These nymphæ walk and eat: the only difference between them and perfect insects, is, that they want wings, and are incapable of generation.—The nymphæ of the dragon-fly, the bug, the grasshopper, and the cricket are of this sort.

Insects, like other animals, were not distinguished by ancient naturalists otherwise than by the situations in which they

they inhabited. Before Linnæus, no philosopher had attempted a systematic arrangement of them, in which they might be distinguished by certain characters.—The first classification of insects was formed by that naturalist. After him, M. Geoffroy attempted a more accurate classification of them.—His division of insects into sections and genera, is a master-piece of precision and perspicuity: It is this naturalist's system which we have adopted. M. Fabricius has since attempted a division of insects, by the form of the jaws.

M. Geoffroy divides insects into six sections, according to the number, the structure, or the want of the wings. The first section contains *coleoptera*, or those insects which have their wings covered with cases. Their mouth is formed by two lateral and corneous jaws, and is the second general characteristic of this section. The May-bug displays these two characteristics.

The second section, the *hemiptera*, whose upper wings are either somewhat thick and coloured, or half hard and opaque; but in this section, the wings do not afford so certain and conspicuous a characteristic as the mouth. The mouth is a long, acute trunk, which terminates, below, between the legs. To this section belong the wood-bug, and the balm-cricket.

The third section consists of *tetrapterous insects with mealy wings*, whose four wings are coloured by a scaly dust, which have a trunk, sometimes longer, sometimes shorter, frequently spiral; as, for instance, the butterfly. Linnæus calls these insects *lepoptera*.

The fourth section consists of *tetrapterous insects having naked wings*. Their four wings are membranous: they have hard jaws.—Such is the wasp. Linnæus has divided these insects into two orders: The *nevroptera*, which have no sting on the anus, and have their wings
divided

divided by nerves; and the *hymenoptera*, which have no sting at the anus, and have membranous wings, but no very discernible nerves in them.

The fifth section consists of *dipterous* insects, or insects with two wings. Their mouth is generally of a trunk form; and, at the root of the wing, they have small buttons, serving as balances, and bowls covering them.

Lastly, in the sixth and last section, are ranked the *aptera*, insects destitute of wings, such as the spider, the louse, &c.

Besides these primary divisions, M. Geoffroy has established some others, to assist the collector of insects.—
(See Table VIII.)

Although several celebrated naturalists have, since M. Geoffroy, turned their attention on the history of insects; and although M. Fabricius has published a new system of the classification of insects, in which the characteristics are taken from the organs with which they receive their food; yet I have preferred M. Geoffroy's system, which, as it contains fewer genera and species, is far from being so complicated and perplexing as that of M. Fabricius.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of Worms. HELMINTHOLOGY.

WORMS are soft animals, very different in form from insects, with which they have been, by many naturalists, confounded, and far from being so perfectly organized.

organized. They have, properly speaking, no mouth ; —the conformation of their members does not resemble that of insects, nor are they liable to pass through different states. Few of them are known to have organs for generation : Most of them have no head, regularly formed ; and they are all distinguished by the want of feet and scales.

The class of worms is the most numerous, and the least known of all the classes of animals.—There are few organized bodies, either dead or living, in which worms are not found. Most naturalists have arranged worms and polypi under one class. They might perhaps be better separated ; as they are widely different in respect to their interior structure and habits. Most worms have a heart and blood-vessels ; but no such organs have been observed in polypi.

The worms on which our attention is at present engaged, are to be carefully distinguished from the larvæ of insects, which have likewise received the name of worms on account of their form. Their head has a jaw ; their legs are more or less numerous, but generally about six ; and these parts afford characteristics by which they may be distinguished.

Worms are very much disposed to motion : most of them are fond of moisture, and seek after it. In some, the form of the head is not very perfect ; and they are mostly hermaphrodites.—Such as have heads, have upon them two moveable horns, which they can draw inwards, and which are called *tentacula*. It appears, that almost all worms, when mutilated, reproduce the parts which they lose.—This shews their organization to be very simple ; and in this particular, they resemble polypi.

This class of animals may be divided into four sections : —The first containing naked worms, the organization of

which is best known, and which, in this property, nearly resemble other animals.—In the second section, we may arrange worms with a testaceous covering,—shell-worms. The organization of these is not so well known as that of the former class; but M. Adanson's researches have shewn their structure to be nearly the same with the structure of naked worms.—The third section may comprehend worms having a crustaceous covering. Of these, the organization is less known than that of either of the two preceding sections; nothing but their external form, and the structure of their mouth having been yet examined.—The polypi belong to the fourth section.—Many naturalists have already employed themselves on the systematic divisions of these different sections. In the division in the eighth table, we have followed Lister, Linnæus, Klein, Ellis, Pallas, D'Argenville.—(See *Table VIII.*)

SECTION II.

Of the Functions of Animals, from Man to the Polypus.

THE characteristics of living, organic bodies are, as we have already observed several times, the different functions which they perform with their organs. These we have considered in vegetables ; and, the order which we have observed, requires us to consider them also in animals.

The department of medicine to which it belongs to examine the functions of animals, is Physiology. This valuable science should not be confined to man ; it should be extended to all animals : And in this light are we going to take a hasty view of it at present.

The functions of animals may be reduced to the following :

1. Circulation.
2. Secretion.
3. Respiration.
4. Digestion.
5. Nutrition.
6. Generation.
7. Irritability.
8. Sensibility.

These different functions belong to man, quadrupeds, cetaceous animals, birds, oviparous quadrupeds, serpents, fishes, insects. Worms and polypi are not capable of them all ; and the other classes display them in different degrees.

ARTICLE FIRST.

Of Circulation.

CIRCULATION is one of the first functions of animals : it is the function by which life is maintained : when it ceases, the animal immediately dies : the organs employed in it are the heart, the arteries, and the veins.

The

The heart is a conical muscle, with two cavities in its bottom, which are called *ventricles*. Immediately under it are two bags, called *auricles*. Out of the left ventricle, there proceeds a large artery, which is called the *aorta*, and distributes the blood through the whole body. Another artery, equally large, likewise proceeds from the right ventricle: this is called the *pulmonary artery*, because it spreads, in ramifications, through the lungs. The right auricle receives the blood as it returns from its circulation through the whole body, by the two *venæ cavæ*. This fluid passes from the right auricle into the right ventricle. From the right ventricle, it issues into the lungs, through the pulmonary artery. Through the pulmonary veins, it proceeds into the left auricle: it passes thence into the left ventricle; and from the left ventricle, by the *aorta*, through the whole body.

This motion, which proceeds in this manner in the human body, forms two sorts of circulation;—circulation through the whole body, and the circulation in the lungs. The latter was known before the former. The general circulation was discovered by Harvey, an English physician.

In quadrupeds, cetaceous animals, and birds, this function is carried on precisely in the same way as in man. In fishes, the heart has only one ventricle; and, in them, the lungs, or gills, do not receive the blood through a particular cavity in the heart. In reptiles, this function is performed in the same way as in fishes. In insects and worms, the heart consists of a series of knots, which contract, one after another: their vessels are very small, and their blood cold and colourless. Polypi have neither a heart nor blood-vessels: In them, this function is

carried on in a more imperfect manner than even in vegetables.

ARTICLE II.

Of Secretion.

SECRETION is a function by which there are separated from the blood, in different organs, juices designed for particular purposes, such as the bile in the liver, &c. This function is one of the most general among animals: it takes place through all the classes; but we cannot describe it as it is performed in them all, without running into too tedious a detail of particulars. We shall only observe, therefore, that, in all animals in which a real circulation is carried on, secretion is regulated by the same laws as in the human species; and appears to take place even in most of those animals which have no heart. Besides that analogy which must necessarily subsist between man and such animals as are possessed of the same organs, in respect to the function of which we are now speaking; almost every different class of animals has peculiar secretions which are not observable in the human species:—such are the secretions of musk and civet, among quadrupeds; of the white of the whale, and ambergrise, among cetaceous animals; of the

the oily juice with which birds dress their feathers; of the virulent humour of the viper; of the glutinous fluid of the scales of fishes; of the acid and acrid juices of the buprestes, staphylini, ants, and wasps, among insects; of the viscid mucilage of snails; of the colouring juices of purple; and of many others, which come to be taken notice of under the natural history of the different species of animals.

ARTICLE III.

Of Respiration.

RESPIRATION, considered as it takes place in all animals in general, is a function which brings the blood into contact with the fluid in which they live. For this purpose, man and quadrupeds are possessed of an organ called the *lungs*.—It is a collection of hollow vesicles, which are nothing more but ramifications of a membranous and cartilaginous duct, called the *tracheal artery*,—and of the blood-vessels, which, with their ramifications, form a great many areolæ on the surface of the pulmonary vesicles. These vesicles and vessels are supported by a loose and spongy cellular texture, which forms the parenchyma of the lungs. The air, when

inhaled, distends these vesicles. The oxigene of the atmosphere combines with the carbone disengaged from the blood; and thus forms carbonic acid, which, together with azotic gas, is exhaled. The matter of heat, separated from the vital air of the atmosphere, combines with the blood, and restores to it the properties which it has lost by circulation through the body.

In cetaceous animals, this function is performed in the same manner: Only, as in these animals there is a direct communication between the two auricles, they are capable of remaining for some time without respiration.

In birds, respiration is performed much in the same way as in the above mentioned animals; but its influence extends much more through the body. Anatomists have discovered, in the belly of birds, spongy vesicular organs, which communicate with their lungs; and the lungs again extend to the bones of the wings,—which are hollow, but contain no marrow,—by a duct which rises from the upper part of the breast, and opens into the upper and inflated part of the os humerus. This noble discovery, which was made by M. Campen, shews, that the air passes from the lungs of birds into the bones of their wings. And this fluid being rarefied by the heat of the body, renders them very light, and contributes greatly to their flying.

Fishes have, instead of lungs, gills or bronchiæ. These organs consist of membranous fringes, disposed on an arcuated bone, and full of blood-vessels. Water enters by the mouth, passes among the fringes, separating them from one another, presses upon, and agitates the blood, and passes out by two lateral apertures behind the head, on which are two moveable osseous valves, called *opercula*, supported by the bronchial membrane.

membrane. Duverney imagined that the gills separated the air contained in the water. M. Vicq d'Azir, who has employed himself a good deal on the anatomy of fishes, is of opinion, that, in their gills, water acts the same part which air does in the lungs of other animals. One thing certain is, that, as these animals do not respire air, or produce from it carbonic acid, their blood is not of the same degree of heat which that elastic fluid communicates to the blood of animals which respire it.

Insects are destitute of lungs. They have two ducts, or tracheæ, extending along the back, with which, on each side, a number of other smaller ducts communicate; and these terminate, one on the outer side of each ring, by small orifices, called *stigmata*. The *stigmata* rather appear to be designed for the expiration of a particular elastic fluid; for insects do not die immediately in vacuo; but when the *stigmata* are closed up, they are thrown into convulsions, and die in a few seconds. The organization of worms is still more imperfect. Polypi are not known to respire at all: in this function, therefore, they are more imperfect than vegetables, in which tracheæ have been found.

ARTICLE IV.

Of Digestion.

DIGESTION is the separation of the nutritious matter contained in food,—and its absorption by certain vessels, called *chylia*ry. It takes place in a duct running between the mouth and the anus, which, in the human body, is dilated towards the upper part of the abdomen. The part dilated, is called the *stomach*, or ventricle. The alimentary canal then becomes narrower, and is wound into what are called the *intestines*. This long tube, consisting of muscles and membranes, is intended to detain the aliments till all the nutritious matter be extracted from them. There are also other glandulous organs situated round the stomach, the purpose of which is to prepare fluids for stimulating the stomach and intestines, and to extract the nutritious part of the aliments. These organs are the liver, the spleen, and the pancreas. The bile and the pancreatic juice run into the former intestine called the *duodenum*, and mix with the aliments: Before that mixture takes place, the aliments are dissolved in the stomach by the gastric juice.

The

The primary intestines, through their whole length, are filled with the orifices of vessels, the business of which is to carry off the chyle. Those vessels convey it into the lumbar, and the thoracic duct; and the chyliary fluid is thus discharged into the left subclaviar vein; where it mixes with the blood.—Such are the mechanism and the phænomena of digestion in the human body.

Quadrupeds differ widely from one another, in the form of their teeth, stomach, and intestines. Some of these animals, as, for instance, the philodotus and the ant-eater, are without teeth, and eat nothing but soft aliments. Others, such as the ratou and the sloth, have only the *molars*. Some, such as the elephant and the sea-cow, have both the molares and the canine teeth. Lastly, most quadrupeds have three sorts of teeth—molares, canine, and incisory. What is most strikingly remarkable in the diversified structure of the teeth, as has been remarked by Aristotle, Galen, &c. is, that there exists, invariably, a relation between the number and position of the teeth, and the form of the stomach. All quadrupeds having incisory teeth in the two jaws,—the horse, the ape, the squirrel, the dog, the cat, &c., have only a membranous ventricle, like that of the human species. Anatomists call these animals *monogastric*. In them, the function of digestion is performed in the same way as in the human body.—Quadrupeds having incisory teeth only in the under jaw, are *polygastric* and ruminating,—such are the camel, the camelopardalis, the buck, the ram, the cow, the stag, and the kid. These quadrupeds are generally bifulcar and horned; they have, all of them, four stomachs. The first is called, in the cow, the *paunch*: it is the largest, and is divided into other four bags. It, together with the second,

cond, which opens into the paunch by a large orifice, receives the aliments.—In these organs, herbaceous aliments are dilated, and air rarefied: these stimulate the nerves, and thus produce an anti-peristaltic motion, which throws them back into the œsophagus and the mouth, where they undergo a new comminution by the dentes molares; and being reduced into a sort of soft paste, they are again swallowed, and, together with the drink of the animal, conveyed into the third stomach, the *omasus*, through a semi-canal extending between the œsophagus and that ventricle. Lastly, from the omasus they are conveyed into that ventricle, which, in calves, is called the *rennet-bag*, and there thoroughly digested.—The intestines of ruminating animals are also much larger than those of monogastric quadrupeds. The mechanism with which cetaceous animals are provided for this function, is exactly like that of monogastric quadrupeds.

Birds differ from one another in the structure of the stomach: in some, it is membranous,—in others, muscular. Those possessed of the former characteristic, which may be called *hymenogastric*, are carnivorous: All birds of prey belong to this species. Their stomach contains a very powerful juice, capable even of reducing bones to a soft substance, according to Reaumur's experiments: their bile is likewise very acrid.—The second, which merit the name of *myogastric*, live only upon grain: their stomach consists of a quadrigastric muscle, covered with a hard, thick membrane, suitable for trituration. These birds have likewise a double cæcum.

Fishes have a membranous stomach, of an oblong form, with a good many appendices: their intestines are generally short. They have a liver, but no pancreas.

—Reptiles

—Reptiles display the same internal structure: their stomach is capable of an amazing distension. Serpents have been often seen to swallow whole animals, much larger than themselves.

Insects have a stomach and intestines, regularly organized. Swammerdam and Perrault affirm, that a particular sort of cricket has four stomachs;—that is, one large stomach divided into four bags, as appears when the animal is dissected.—The stomach of worms is very irregularly formed: they have also small intestines.—The polypus seems to be nothing but stomach; for it digests very fast. The same orifice serves it both for mouth and anus.

ARTICLE V.

Of Nutrition.

NUTRITION is the consequence of digestion and circulation. As the solids are always suffering a loss by the motions which they carry on, they need to be repaired; and this reparation they receive from the function of nutrition.—In the first period of the life of the animal, they grow larger; and the animal increases in size. The cellular tissue is usually considered as the organ of this function, and the lymph as the humour from

from which the solids derive that reparation which they need. It appears, however, that each organ is nourished with a matter peculiar to itself, which it separates either from the blood or from the lymph, or from some other fluid. The muscles, for instance, are nourished by a fibrous matter which they separate from the blood: the bones extract from it a calcareous phosphoric salt, and a lymphatic matter; the pure lymph dries into plates in the cellular texture: concrescible oil, deposited in these, produces the fat. Every different part of the body is nourished in a way peculiar to itself: the nutrition of each of these parts is truly an act of secretion. This function is carried on in quadrupeds and cetaceous animals, precisely in the same way as in man: In birds, still in the same way; in fishes much slower,—and they therefore live very long. In general, the slower the nutrition and growth, the longer is the life of the animal.

There is nothing peculiar in the manner in which this function is carried on in insects. They grow only in the form of larvæ; but not when chrysalides or perfect insects. Swammerdam and Malpighy have shewn, that the larva contains the perfect insect, fully formed, under a number of skins;—the caterpillar incloses the butterfly, with its feet and wings folded.

In worms and polypi, nutrition is carried on in the cellular tissue; and in vegetables, likewise, by means of the cellular and vesicular tissues.

ARTICLE VI.

Of Generation.

GENERATION, considered through the whole animal kingdom, is performed in many various ways. In most genera there is a distinction of sexes, and copulation is requisite for the production of the species;—such, for instance, is the law with respect to man, quadrupeds, and cetaceous animals.

The females of quadrupeds have a matrix parted into two cavities, *uterus bicornis*, and a greater number of teats than the female of the human species: they are not subject to the menstrual flux: most of them produce several young at one time, and the period of their gestation is commonly shorter. Several of them have a particular membrane, for receiving the urine of the foetus: it is called *allantoides*.

The manner of generation, in birds, is very different. The males have a very small genital organ, not perforated, and often double. In the females, the vulva is usually situated behind the anus: they have ovaria, but no matrix, and a duct through which the egg is conveyed from the ovaria into the gut: this duct is called the *oviductus*. Physiologists who have examined the phenomena

nomena of incubation, have observed some unexpected facts with respect to the egg, both fecundated, and not fecundated. Malpighy and Haller have made the most important of these discoveries. Haller found the pullet fairly formed in eggs not fecundated.

Copulation does not take place among fishes. The female deposits her eggs on sand, and the male passing over them, impregnates them with his feminal liquor, which is no doubt necessary for their fecundation. After a certain period, these eggs burst, and emit the young fishes.

The males of various species of oviparous quadrupeds have a double or forked organ for generation. Of serpents, the viper is the only viviparous species.

Insects alone display all the varieties with respect to this function that are observable among other animals : some species exhibit the distinction of sexes among individuals,—this, indeed, is the case with the greatest number : in other species, reproduction takes place either with or without copulation,—as in the vine-fretter : an insect of this species, inclosed by itself in a glass, produces a great number of young. M. Bonnet has fully established the truth of this fact, by a series of experiments prosecuted with the utmost care. The genital organ of male insects is concealed in the belly. When the extremity of that part of the insect's body is gently pressed, the organ appears. It is usually accommodated with two small arms for holding the female. The situation of this organ is very much varied : it is sometimes on the upper part of the belly, near the breast,—as in the female of the dragon-fly, *libellula* ; at other times, it is situated at the extremity of the antenna,—as in the male spider. Insects multiply prodigiously, and are almost all oviparous, excepting the wood-louse.

Worms

Worms are androgynous: every individual possesses the characteristics of both sexes; and copulation is double,—as may be observed of the earth worm and the snail.

M. Adanson adds, that bivalvular shell worms are destitute of organs of generation, and reproduce the species without copulation. These worms are viviparous. —Univalvular shell worms are oviparous: the young, whether they issue from an egg, or immediately from the belly of the mother, have the shell ready-formed from their birth.

Polypi are the most singular animals with respect to generation. They produce by shooting off slips.—When a polypus attains its full growth, it shoots out, as it were, a small branch, which is separated from it, and fixes on any contiguous body; where it continues to grow till it have nearly gained its full size. Polypi, in short, are produced from one another, much in the same way as branches spread from the trunks of trees.

We know only the more apparent phenomena of generation.—All the systems which have been formed to explain that mysterious operation of nature, are attended with insuperable difficulties. Accounts of them may be found in Haller's *Physiology*, Maupertuis's *Venus Physique*, and Buffon's *Natural History*.—M. Bonnet, in his *Reflections on organized Bodies*, has said more on this subject than almost any other person.—Buffon's system is ingenious, and deserves to be read.

ARTICLE VII.

Of Irritability.

IRRITABILITY is a property of certain organs, called *muscles*, by virtue of which they contract, when acted upon by the contact of any stimulus.—M. Haller has given a very good account of the doctrine of irritability.—The muscles of man, quadrupeds, cetaceous animals, and birds, resemble each other. They are all equally red, and consist of fibres united in bundles of different forms, covered with silver-coloured membranes called *aponeuroses*, and terminating in flat or round cords called *tendons*.

The muscles of fishes are white, and much more irritable than such as are red.—The muscles of oviparous quadrupeds and serpents are still more irritable; and in these animals the irritability remains long after the death of the animal. This last property appears to be common to all cold-blooded animals; but those whose blood is hot, seem to lose the irritability of their muscles as it becomes cold.

The muscles of insects are within the bones, which are hollow and of a corneous nature. This structure is very discernible in the thigh-bone of the great green grasshopper, and also in the crab.

The muscles of worms are very pale and irritable: they are even very strong,—especially in those worms which have a ponderous shell to move.

Polypi

Polypi are very irritable : they contract into a round point ; they move their arms with amazing agility, and fold them very readily. Their structure, however, does not appear to be muscular.

It is their irritability which renders animals capable of moving from one place to another, and performing such motions as are necessary, that they may remove hurtful things to a distance, and procure what they need. The history of these motions is therefore referable to the history of this function. Standing and walking, leaping, flying, the pace of reptiles, and swimming, are a combination of actions which depend on the muscular contractions of animals. Were we to enter into a minute detail of them, it would be necessary to consider, in the human species, with respect to standing,—the muscles which serve to extend the thigh ; with respect to leaping,—the extremities, the form of the body, the length and acuteness of the countenance, and the lateral compression of the thorax, in quadrupeds ; with respect to flying,—the structure of the feathers, the breast-bone, the pectoral muscles, the bill, the tail, and the interior texture of the bones, in birds. It would be no less necessary to consider the muscular rings, and the scales or tubercles which reptiles have instead of feet ; in fishes, the form of the body, the structure of the fins, the structure of the air-bladder, and its communication with the stomach ; in insects, the structure, the number, and the position of the legs, the appendices of the tarsi, the form, the position, and the nature of the wings, and of those organs which nature has given them to balance themselves in the air, &c. But it is enough for us at present to have pointed out the importance of such researches, and that they are highly worthy of the attention of the physiologist.

Lastly, there is another consideration which does not appear to me to have been hitherto properly attended to.—Muscles may be considered as organs of secretion, intended by nature for the separation of the fibrous and irritable matter of which we have elsewhere spoken. The disorders to which this sort of secretion is liable, should be carefully observed by physicians. We have already had occasion to treat of this in our account of the blood.

ARTICLE VIII.

Of Sensibility.

SENSIBILITY is a function, by means of which animals are susceptible of pleasure and pain, according to the respective natures of bodies in contact with their organs. Sensations depend on the brain, on the marrow, on the spine, and the numerous nerves which are diffused from these parts, all over the body : without these organs, there could be no sensibility. In order the better to explain the nature of this function, we may divide into three regions those organs which appear to form only one whole ; which physiologists have called the *sensible man*. These three are, the brain, the hinder part of the brain, and the spinal marrow,—the nerves diffused from these parts over the body,—and the sensitive expansion, or dilated extremity of the nerves. This extremity or expansion exhibits a great diversity of forms in the different organs : it is sometimes membranous and reticular,—as in the stomach and the intestines ; sometimes soft and pulpy,—as at the bottom of the eye, and within the labyrinth of the ear. Under the skin, on the tongue, on the

the top of the glans, &c., it takes a different form ; and in other places,—as on the nasal membrane of Schneider, it is spread out in long filaments, soft and flat.

The brain of the human species is larger, and better organized than that of any other animal : it is the seat of thought. In quadrupeds, it is much smaller ; but their nerves are more sensible ; and their senses, particularly the sense of smelling, more acute,—the organ of this sense being very much dilated, and, as it were, multiplied, by the number of the ethmoidal plates. The skin being thick, and covered with hair, is, on that account, not possessed of great sensibility. The taste of these animals is very delicate.

The brain of cetaceous animals is exceedingly small, in comparison with the size of the body : it is encompassed by a thick, oily fluid : their senses are obtuse.

The brain of birds is not of the same structure, nor has it the same folds, convexities, and concavities with that of the human species and quadrupeds. The beautiful structure of the eyes of those animals ; their thick and cartilaginous sclerotica ; the *membrana nictitans*, or interior eye-lid, moved by particular muscles ; the bulk of the crystalline and vitreous substances ; the bag of black matter, at the extremity of the optic nerve ; the brilliant crust which coats the choroides ;—all these together, display a very complicated organization, and shew, that nature has taken extraordinary pains to render the powers of vision of these animals keen and piercing ; and thus enable them to distinguish their prey at a distance, and avoid the dangers to which they are exposed by the rapidity of their motion in flying : In a word, to favour the agility and activity of motion, which seem to be the peculiar prerogatives of these animals. Their hearing is not so perfect as their sight. They do not appear very

capable of distinguishing either the taste or the smell of aliments. The situation of the nostrils, and the hard membrane which covers the bill, account for these phenomena.

Reptiles have but very little sensibility. Their brain is very small : there are no knots on their nerves : their senses, in general, appear to possess but very little activity. Yet Messrs Klein, Geoffroy, and Vicq d'Azyr, have observed the internal structure of both the eye and ear of these animals to be extremely beautiful and regular.

The brain, in fishes, is very small ; and the cranium is filled with a mass of oily matter. Their senses, especially those of sight and hearing, are very acute. The conformation of the organ of hearing, in fishes, is very regular,—as has been observed by Messrs Klein, Geoffroy, Camper, and Vicq d'Azyr.—Those naturalists who took fishes to be deaf, were mistaken.

Insects have no brain ; but they have spinal marrow, of a cylindrical form, and full of knots, which runs through the whole length of the body. Nervous filaments spread out from that marrow, and accompany the distribution of the tracheæ.—Of the organs of sensation, none but the eyes are known in insects. Swammerdam describes an optic nerve, under the cornea of the eyes of insects that are reticulated, which is there distributed into filaments equal in number to the membranes of the reticulum. We know not whether they have an organ of hearing.

The organs of sensation which have been observed in worms, are scarcely more numerous. Swammerdam found in the snail, a brain with two lobes and moveable,—eyes, sometimes at the base, sometimes on the top of the tentacula,—and an optic nerve, capable of contraction

contraction as well as these horns. M. Adanson tells us, that the eyes are sometimes wanting in worms, or at least covered with opaque skin.

As to polypi; they have no organs of sensation, and yet they seem to have a sort of predilection for light.

Man, therefore, possesses the function of sensibility in a much more eminent degree than any other animal. This is what peculiarly distinguishes him, and entitles him to be ranked at the head of the animal creation. —The legislator, the philosopher, and the physician should be intimately acquainted with every particular relative to this function.

S U P P L E M E N T
TO THE
M I N E R A L K I N G D O M.

*Of the Nature of Mineral Waters, and the Methods
of analysing them.*

AFTER having considered all the bodies belonging to the mineral kingdom, and examined their physical properties, it seems proper to introduce, in this place, the history of mineral waters; for, as these fluids generally hold, in solution, terrene, saline, and metallic matters, either together or separately, it would have been impossible to make the reader understand their nature and composition, without making him previously acquainted with the nature of the principles by which they are mineralized. Another advantage arising from our introducing, in this place, the account of mineral waters, is, that it may here serve as a sort of recapitulation of what has been said of minerals in general; as their principles must be taken notice of, in considering the manner of analysing them.

§ I. Definition and History of Mineral Waters.

WATERS holding minerals in solution, are called *mineral waters*. But as all water, in a natural state, is impregnated, either more or less, with some mineral substances, the name, *mineral waters*, should be confined to such waters as are sufficiently impregnated with mineral matters to produce some sensible effects on the animal œconomy, and either to cure or prevent some of the diseases to which the human body is liable *. On this account, these waters might be, with much more propriety, called *medicinal waters*,—were not the name by which they are commonly known too firmly established by long use.

The first knowledge which mankind acquired of mineral waters, was, like the other branches of human knowledge, obtained by accident. Their having accidentally produced beneficial effects on the health of people who made use of them, was, no doubt, the first cause which occasioned them to be distinguished from common waters. The philosophers who turned their attention upon them, considered only their sensible qualities,—colour, gravity or lightness, taste and smell. Pliny took notice of a great many different sorts of water, distinguished either by conspicuous physical properties, or by the useful effects which they were capable of producing.

But

* It is to be observed, that though waters contain no mineral principles which can be discovered by analysis, they may yet produce sensible effects on the animal œconomy. For this purpose, they need only to be very light and active, and of an hotter temperature than common water. Such are the waters of Plombieres and Luxeuil, which differ only in temperature from common water.

But it was only in the seventeenth century that people began to think of examining the principles dissolved in these waters, by subjecting them to chemical processes. Among the first who attended to this object, was Boyle, who, in the account of his ingenious experiments on colours, published at Oxford in the year 1663, mentions various re-agents, which, when poured into water, shew, by the alterations which their colours suffer, what substances are dissolved in the water.—The Academy of Sciences, ever since their institution, have been highly sensible of the importance of the analysis of waters; and in the year 1667, Duclos engaged in an examination of the different mineral waters in France. Among the earlier Memoirs of that Society, are the experiments of this chemist on those waters. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, Boyle engaged, in a more particular manner, in examining mineral waters; and in the year 1685, he published a work on the subject. Boulduc, in the year 1729, published an account of a process for analysing mineral waters, greatly preferable to any of those which were commonly in use before that period: He directed to evaporate the water under examination; and, during the progress of the evaporation, to separate, by a filter, the substances deposited.

Various celebrated chemists have since been successful in researches into the nature of mineral waters. None of them has failed to make important discoveries concerning the different principles contained in those fluids. Thus Boulduc discovered in them, natrum, the nature of which he ascertained,—Le Roy of Montpellier, calcareous muriate,—Margraf, magnesian muriate,—Dr Priestley, carbonic acid,—Messrs Monnet and Bergman, sulphurated hydrogenous, or *hepatic*, gas. The two last of these chemists, besides enriching this department of chemical knowledge

knowledge with new discoveries, have published complete treatises on the processes for the analysis of mineral waters, and have introduced into it, more accuracy and precision, by which it is greatly improved. There are, besides, many analyses of particular mineral waters, which have been made by very ingenious chemists, and throw much light on this part of experimental knowledge, which is, with good reason, considered as the most difficult branch of chemistry. Our limits do not here permit us to enter into a detail of all the information concerning mineral waters to be found in the different works on the subject: But we shall take care to mention, occasionally, the authors from whom we derive the information which we communicate.

§ II. *Of the Principles contained in Mineral Waters.*

IT is only within these few years, that all the principles liable to be dissolved in mineral waters have been certainly known. The reason of this may be naturally understood to be, that we have only of late acquired the chemical knowledge necessary to enable us to determine the nature of those matters, and that their existence could not be ascertained till the means proper for that purpose were adopted. Another reason which has retarded the progress of science in this department, is, that mineral matters are never found dissolved in waters but in very small quantities, and a number of them always mixed together; and these circumstances conceal from observation the properties by which they are respectively distinguished. Notwithstanding these and other unfavourable circumstances, the numerous researches of the chemists above mentioned, and of others to be hereafter

after taken notice of, have shewn, that several mineral substances are very generally found in water; that some others are but seldom found naturally dissolved in that fluid; and, lastly, that various mineral substances are never dissolved in it at all. Let us, however, review the different classes of these substances, in the same order in which we have already traced their history.

Siliceous earth is sometimes suspended in waters; and being then very much attenuated, it is not liable to be precipitated; but the proportion in which it is found is always exceedingly small.

Aluminous earth is likewise met with in waters. The extraordinary fineness of that earth, which causes it to be diffused all through water, makes it also destroy the transparency of the fluid. Argillaceous waters are therefore foul and whitish, and of a pearl or opaline colour: they likewise feel greasy, and have received the name of *saponaceous*.

Barytes, magnesia, and lime, are never pure in water, but always combined with acids.

Neither are the fixed alkalis ever found in water, in a state of purity, but often in neutral salts.

The same is the case with ammoniac and most of the acids. Yet carbonic acid is often found in waters, in a state of freedom, and possessed of all its properties: It even characterizes a particular class of mineral waters, known by the name of *gazeous, spiritous, or acidulated waters*.

There are none of the perfect neutral salts often found in solution in mineral waters, except sulphate of soda or *Glauber-salt*, muriate of soda, muriate of potash, and carbonate of soda.

Sulphate of lime, calcareous muriate, chalk, sulphate of magnesia or *Epsom-salt*, muriate of magnesia, and carbonate

bonate of magnesia, are more commonly met with in water than any of the other terrene salts. As to nitrate of lime and nitrate of magnesia, which some chemists tell us they have found in mineral waters; these salts are scarce ever found but in salt waters, not in mineral waters properly so called.

Aluminous neutral salts, as well as those which have a base of barytes, are almost never found in solution in waters. Alum or aluminous sulphate appears to exist in some waters.†

Pure hydrogenous gas has not been hitherto found in mineral waters.

Neither has pure sulphur been found in these fluids: sometimes, though *but* seldom, they contain a small quantity of it in the state of sulphure of soda. But it is most frequently sulphurated hydrogenous gas which mineralizes sulphureous mineral waters.

Lastly, Iron is more commonly found in mineral waters than any other of the metals: It is found in them in two different states,—either combined with carbonic acid, or in union with sulphuric acid. Some chemists have been of opinion, that it may also exist in waters in a pure metallic state, without any intermediate acid. But as this metal is scarce ever found in nature, unless in the state of oxide, and in combination with carbonic or sulphuric acid,—this opinion could never have been adopted, if its authors had not been ignorant of the existence of the former of these two acids, and at a loss to conceive how iron could be dissolved in water, without the help of the sulphuric

† We speak not, here, of the opinion of Givré, and other chemists, who thought alum to be one of the principles the most prevalent in mineral waters; but of the accurate analyses by which M. Mitouart discovered the existence of alum in the waters of Dominique de Vals,—and M. Opoix, in the waters of Provins.

fulphuric acid. Bergman asserts, that both it and manganese are found in some waters in union with muriatic acid.

Arsenic, fulphate of copper, and fulphate of zinc, which are found in many waters, communicate to them noxious qualities; and the only reason for being at pains to detect any of these salts in water, is, in order that the water may be carefully abstained from.

Several authors have admitted the existence of bitumen in mineral waters; but scarce any chemist now agrees to this. It was the bitter taste of these waters which made them be suspected to contain this oleaginous body. But bitumen is now known not to have any such taste; and the waters are known to derive it from calcareous muriate.

It is easy to imagine, that as water runs through the interior parts of the globe, especially in mountains, it must naturally be impregnated with the different substances here enumerated. The different strata of earth through which waters run, and the extent of those strata, likewise serve to account for their being more or less impregnated with mineral principles, and for the diversity of the principles found at different times in the same waters,—especially if to these considerations we add, that the various alterations to which our globe is liable, particularly at the surface, and in its more elevated parts, must often cause those fluids to change the direction of their course.

§ III. *Different Classes of Mineral Waters.*

FROM what has been here said concerning the different matters usually contained in mineral waters, the Reader may perceive, that the classes of mineral waters may

may be equal in number to the terrene, saline, and metallic matters liable to be dissolved in the fluid ; and of consequence very numerous. But it is to be observed, that no one of the substances which we have enumerated is ever found in waters alone, and unaccompanied with any of the others ; and that waters often contain minerals, to the number of three, four, five, or even more. This is one difficulty unfavourable to a systematic division of mineral waters, according to the principles which they contain. Yet, by considering principally the matter which exists in the greatest abundance in any mineral water, and whose properties are the most eminent, we may form distinctions which, though not exceedingly accurate, will yet serve to indicate the nature of any of these fluids, and enable us to judge of its virtues. In this way have mineral waters been distinguished by the different chemists who have engaged in experiments upon them. M. Monnet divides them into three classes,—alkaline, sulphureous, and ferruginous. From late discoveries, it appears necessary to enlarge the number of the classes. M. Duchanoy, who has published a valuable work upon mineral waters, distinguishes them into ten classes,—gazeous, alkaline, earthy, ferruginous, hot without any mineral, gazeous bath-waters, saponaceous, sulphureous, bituminous, and saline waters. That author may indeed be blamed for having extended the classes of mineral waters to too great a number, as we are unacquainted with either pure gazeous, or pure bituminous waters ; yet his division is undeniably the most complete, and conveys the most just ideas of the nature of the various mineral waters ; nor could he have adopted any other more suitable to his subject.

To explain briefly the order in which mineral waters may be arranged according to their principles, and complete

plete what we have already said on this subject, we shall here propose another division of those waters, less extensive, but more regularly systematic than M. Duchanoy's: in which it is to be observed, that we do not include bath-waters which are merely hot without an addition of any mineral, as the best chemists consider these as nothing else but hot water: neither do we choose to include bituminous waters, as there are none, really such, known to exist in nature.

To us it appears, that all waters may be arranged in four classes,—acidulated waters, salt waters, sulphureous waters, and ferruginous waters.

CLASS I. *Acidulated Waters.*

GAZEOUS Waters, which may be, with much more propriety, called *acidulated*, are waters in which carbonic acid predominates. They are known by the poignancy of their taste, and the facility with which they boil, and give out bubbles, even by shaking. They redden tincture of turnsole, and precipitate lime-water and alkaline sulphures. We know of no waters containing this acid, in a pure, insulated state; and waters of this class may therefore be subdivided into several orders, according to the other principles contained in them, or the several modifications which they display. They all appear to contain either more or less of alkali and calcareous earth; but their different degrees of temperature enable us to divide them very naturally into two orders. The first of these orders may comprehend cold acidulated and alkaline waters, such as those of Seltz, Saint Myon, Bard, Langeac, Chateldon, Vals, &c. Under the second, we may arrange hot or bath acidulated and alkaline waters,—such as those of Mont d'Or, Vichy, Chatelguyon, &c.

CLASS

CLASS II. *Saline or Salt Waters.*

WE give the name of *saline or salt waters* to waters holding in solution a quantity of neutral salts, sufficiently considerable to act in a very discernible manner, most commonly purgative, on the animal œconomy. It is easy to discover the theory and the nature of these waters: they are precisely like the solutions of salts which we prepare in the laboratory; only, they almost always contain two or three different sorts of salts. Sulphate of soda is very seldom found in them: the saline principles by which they are generally mineralized are, sulphate of magnesia or Epsom salt, marine salt or muriate of soda, calcareous muriate, and magnesian muriate, either separately or together. The waters of Sedlitz, Seydtschutz, and Egra, contain Epsom salt, which is usually mixed with muriate of magnesia. The waters of Balaruc contain muriate of soda, chalk, and calcareous and magnesian muriate: those of Bourbonnè, contain muriate of soda, sulphate of lime, and chalk: those of La Mothe are still more compound than any of the preceding, and hold in solution, muriate of soda, sulphate of lime, chalk, sulphate of magnesia, muriate of magnesia, and an extractive matter. On this head, it is to be observed, that salts with a base of magnesia, are much more common in water than was thought till very lately; and that, in analyses, they are seldom accurately recognized or distinguished from calcareous muriate.

CLASS III. *Sulphureous Waters.*

THE name of *sulphureous waters* has been given to mineral waters appearing to possess some of the properties

ties of sulphur,—such as its smell, and its power of colouring silver. Chemists were long strangers to the true mineralizer of these waters. Most of them took it to be sulphur; but they could never prove the presence of sulphur,—at least, they could never detect more than a few particles of it. Those who examined some of these waters, admitted in them the existence either of sulphureous spirit, or of an alkaline sulphure. Messrs Venel and Monnet were the first who objected to this opinion; M. Monnet, especially, came very near the truth, by representing sulphureous waters as simply impregnated with the vapour of *liver of sulphur*. The younger Rouelle says likewise, that factitious sulphureous water may be produced, by shaking common water, in contact with air disengaged by an acid from an alkaline sulphure. Bergman has greatly improved this doctrine, by examining the properties of sulphurated hydrogenous gas, of which we spoke under the article *sulphur*. He has proved it to be this gas which mineralizes sulphureous waters, which he has therefore called, after it, *hepatic waters*; and he gives directions how to distinguish the presence of sulphur.—Notwithstanding these discoveries, M. Duchanoy speaking of sulphureous waters, allows them to contain sulphure, sometimes alkaline, sometimes calcareous, and sometimes aluminous; and in this he follows the opinion of le Roy of Montpellier, who, as we related under the history of *sulphur*, proposed to form factitious sulphureous waters from sulphure with a base of magnesia. It appears, that there are actually waters which contain a little sulphure, and others again mineralized simply by hydrogenous gas. In this case, sulphureous waters must be distinguished into two orders:—sulphureous waters, containing naturally a little alkaline or calcareous sulphure; and sulphureous waters, which are only impregnated

nated with hydrogenous gas. The waters of Baresges and Caunterets, and the Bonnes waters, appear to belong to the former of these classes; while, again, those of Saint-Amant, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Montmorency, belong to the second. Most of these are hot-bath waters: The water of Enghien-les-Paris, or Montmorency, is cold.

CLASS IV. *Ferruginous Waters.*

AS iron is the most plentiful, and the most liable to alteration of all metals; it is by no means surprising that water should be easily impregnated with it. Accordingly, ferruginous waters are the most copious, and the most common mineral waters. Modern chemistry has thrown much light on this class of waters. They were formerly thought to be all sulphuric. M. Moynet affirms, that scarce any of them contain sulphate of iron; and he is of opinion, that the metal is dissolved in them without the intervention of any acid.

It is now known, that iron, not in the state of sulphate of iron, is dissolved by means of carbonic acid; and thus forms the salt which we have denominated *carbonate of iron*. Messrs Lane, Rouelle, Bergman, and various other chemists, have established this truth beyond a doubt.—The different proportions of carbonic acid, and the state of iron in waters which owe their virtues to this metal, induce us to distinguish this fourth class into three orders.

The *first* comprehends acidulated martial waters, in which the iron is held in solution by carbonic acid, and the acid exists in so large a proportion, as to render them poignant, and somewhat sour to the taste. The waters of Buffang, Spa, Pyrmont, Pougues, and La Dominique de Vals are of this order.

The *second* order contains simple martial waters, having the iron dissolved by carbonic acid, without any excess of the acid. Those of Forges, Aumale, Condé, and most other ferruginous waters belong to this order.— This distinction among ferruginous waters was made by M. Duchanoy.

But we may add a *third* order, after M. Monnet.— This order comprehends waters containing sulphate of iron. Such waters are extremely rare; but there are some such. M. Monnet ranks the waters of Passy in this order. M. Opoix admits the existence of sulphate of iron, even in a very considerable proportion, in the waters of Provins. M. Fourcy, indeed, denies its existence in them, and imagines the iron in those waters to be dissolved by carbonic acid: But we cannot yet decide in this case; for the results of the two chemists are directly opposite to each other, and a new examination of the waters is therefore requisite. We may add, that iron is never found alone in waters: it is always mixed with chalk, sulphate of lime, different muriatic salts, &c. But as the metal is the principal basis of the properties of such waters, they are, therefore, according to the principles which we have laid down, to be called *ferruginous waters* *.

As to saponaceous waters, which are admitted by M. Duchanoy, before we can allow their existence, we must wait till chemical and medical experiments determine the cause of their saponaceous properties, which that physician

* In this classical enumeration of waters, we avoid speaking of such as contain arsenic and copper; they being considered as poisonous. We likewise pass over in silence waters containing ammoniacal salts and extractive substances, produced by the putrefaction of organic matters, over which the water has been stagnated. Waters of these kinds are not medicinal.

Ancient thinks owing to clay, and the effects which those properties enable them to produce on the animal economy, as medicines.

From these particulars it appears, that all mineral or medicinal waters are comprehended in nine orders.

Cold acidulated waters.

Hot or bath acidulated waters.

Sulphuric salt waters.

Muriatic salt waters.

Simple sulphureous waters.

Sulphurated gaseous waters.

Simple ferruginous waters.

Ferruginous and acidulated waters.

Sulphuric ferruginous waters.

§ IV. *Examination of Mineral Waters, as distinguished by Physical Properties.*

AFTER mentioning what different matters are found in waters, and exhibiting a slight sketch of the manner in which they may be divided into classes and orders, according to their principles; we must next give an account of the processes for analysing them, and distinguishing, with all possible accuracy, what substances they contain. This analysis has been thought the most difficult part of chemistry; and with good reason; as it requires both a familiar knowledge of all chemical phenomena, and skill in conducting chemical operations. In order to ascertain, with accuracy, the nature of water, we must, 1. observe the situation of the spring from which it proceeds, and describe faithfully the neighbouring grounds, and strata of minerals; and, in order to discover the nature of those strata, it will be necessary

to dig trenches, and examine, by a narrow inspection, with what substances the water is liable to be impregnated. 2. The physical properties of the water, its taste, smell, colour, transparency, weight, and temperature, are next to be examined. Two thermometers, graduated so as to rise and fall as nearly together as possible, with an aræometer, are requisite for this purpose. These preliminary experiments should also be made in different seasons, at different hours of the day, and when the atmosphere is in different states. Long continued dryness, or copious rains, have a powerful influence on waters. These first observations generally shew to what particular class the water under examination is to be referred, and, of consequence, regulate the remaining part of the analysis. 3. Sediments in the bottom of basons containing water, substances swimming on its surface, and sublimated matters exhaled from it, are too important objects of observation to be neglected. After this preliminary examination, we may proceed to analysis properly so called, which is performed in three ways, —by reagents, by distillation, and by evaporation.

§ V. *Examination of Mineral Waters by Reagents.*

THE name of *reagents* is given to substances which are mixed with waters, in order to discover, by the phenomena which they produce, the nature of the matters which those waters hold in solution.

The most exact chemists have always considered the use of reagents as a very uncertain means of discovering the principles of mineral waters. Their reasons for thinking so, are, that the action of reagents never indicates, in an exact manner, the nature of the matters held in solution by those waters; and the causes of the changes

ges produced in mineral waters by the mixture of reagents, are frequently unknown: in truth, the saline matters employed for this purpose, are capable of producing many changes, concerning the nature of which it is very hard to say any thing decisive. Most of those, therefore, who have engaged in researches of this nature, have put but little trust in reagents: They have thought evaporation a much surer way of discovering the nature and the quantity of the principles of mineral waters. And in the best works on the analysis of these fluids it is laid down as a principle, that reagents are to be used only as auxiliaries, which, at the utmost, only afford grounds for plausible conjectures concerning the principles by which the waters are mineralized. On this account, only a certain number of reagents are now admitted; and the list of those employed by the earlier chemists is greatly reduced.

But it cannot at present be doubted, that, however gentle the heat necessary for the evaporation of waters, yet it must produce sensible alterations on their principles, and change their nature so far as to make their residue, when examined by chemical processes, afford compounds different from those which were dissolved in the water. The loss of the gaseous matters, which are often among the most active principles of mineral waters, occasions a singular change of their nature; and, besides causing several bodies to be precipitated which owe their solubility to the presence of those volatile substances, produces a reaction among the other fixed matters which alters their properties. The phenomena of the double decompositions effected by heat, on compounds which suffer no alteration in cold water, cannot be properly estimated, without a long series of experiments; and our ideas concerning them, are therefore

as yet but very imperfect. Without entering into a tedious detail of particulars, it is enough, that the truth of this fact is allowed by all chemists, to convince us that it cannot be referred solely to evaporation. But is there any means of determining the nature of the substances dissolved in waters, without having recourse to the action of heat? Does the more accurate knowledge of chemical phænomena, which we have derived from the numerous experiments of modern chemists, afford any process by which the errors into which we are liable to be led by the results of evaporation, may be corrected? The particulars which I am about to mention, which are extracted from a Memoir read by me before the Royal Society of Medicine, will shew that very pure reagents, employed in a certain way, may be rendered much more serviceable in the analysis of mineral waters than has been hitherto thought.

Among the numerous reagents, the use of which has been proposed in the analysis of mineral waters, those from which most advantage may be derived, are, tincture of turnsole, syrup of violets, lime-water, pure or caustic potash, caustic ammoniac, concentrated sulphuric acid, nitrous acid, prussiate of lime, gallic alcohol, or *spiritous tincture of nut-galls*; nitric solutions of mercury and silver; paper coloured by the aqueous tincture of ferrambouc, which is rendered blue by alkalis; the aqueous tincture of *terra merita*, to which the same salts communicate a red-brown colour; oxalic acid, for detecting the presence of even the smallest possible quantity of lime; and barytic muriate, for ascertaining the presence of even the most trifling quantities of sulphuric acid.

The effects and the use of these principal reagents have been explained by all chemists; but the particular state in which they are to be used has not been sufficiently

ciently attended to. Before employing them, we should carefully make ourselves acquainted with their nature, that we may not incur mistakes respecting their effects. Bergman has enlarged, at great length, on the effects which they are capable of producing. That celebrated chemist tells us, that paper coloured by tincture of turnsole, takes still a deeper colour when exposed to the action of alkalis, but suffers no alteration of colour from carbonic acid. As it is principally with a view to ascertain the presence of this acid, that this colouring matter is used, he advises to employ its tincture only in water, and to dilute it to such a degree as to make it take a blue colour. He absolutely rejects the use of syrup of violets, because it is liable to ferment, and is scarce ever to be obtained genuine in Sweden. M. de Morveau adds, in a note, that it is easy to distinguish syrup coloured by turnsole, by means of corrosive sublimate, which communicates to it a red colour, but gives to syrup of violets a green colour.

Lime-water is one of the most useful reagents in the analysis of mineral waters, although few chemists have made express mention of it in their works. This fluid decomposes metallic salts, especially sulphate of iron, the metallic oxide of which it precipitates. It separates aluminous earth or magnesia, from the sulphuric, or the muriatic acids, with which those substances are often combined in waters. It also indicates, by precipitation, the presence of carbonic acid. M. Gioanetti, a physician of Turin, has ingeniously contrived to ascertain, by lime-water, the proportion of carbonic acid contained in the waters of St Vincent. That chemist, after observing that the bulk of this acid, from which people have been in use to judge of its quality, varies with the temperature of the atmosphere, mixed nine parts of lime-water

water with two of the water of St Vincent's. He weighed carefully the calcareous earth formed by the transition of the carbonic acid from the mineral water into the lime; and found, by Jacquin's scale, which shews thirteen ounces of this acid to be contained in thirty two ounces of chalk,—that the water of St Vincent's contains somewhat more than fifteen grains. But as lime-water is capable of detaching carbonic from fixed alkali, as well as of seizing that which is in a disengaged state; M. Gioanetti, in order to ascertain exactly the quantity of the latter, performed the same operation with water deprived of its disengaged acid by ebullition. This process may therefore be employed to determine, in an easy and accurate manner, the weight of the disengaged carbonic acid contained in any gaseous mineral water.

One of the chief reasons which have induced chemists to pay little regard to the phænomena produced by reagents in the analysis of mineral waters, is, that they shew the existence of various substances in those waters; and it is then very difficult to discern exactly what effect they produce. This observation chiefly regards potash considered as a reagent; for this alkali decomposes all salts formed by the union of acids with aluminous earth, magnesia, lime, and metallic matters. When alkali precipitates a mineral water, it cannot be determined, merely by inspecting the precipitate, what is the particular nature of the earthy salt decomposed in the experiment. Its effects are still more uncertain, when potash saturated with carbonic acid is employed, as is commonly done; for the acid combined with the alkali, then increases the confusion. For this reason, I recommend the use of very pure caustic potash; which has, besides, another advantage over effervescent alkali, as it indicates

indicates the presence of chalk, which may be dissolved in gaseous water by means of an excess of carbonic acid. As it seizes the acid, the chalk becomes insoluble in the water, and is precipitated. I made myself certain of this fact, by pouring soap-makers' lixivium, recently prepared, into factitious gaseous water holding chalk in solution. The chalk was by degrees precipitated, as the caustic fixed alkali seized the carbonic acid by which it had been held in solution. On evaporating this water to dryness, after filtration, I obtained carbonate of soda, which effervesced in a very discernible manner with acids. Caustic fixed alkali will also produce a precipitate in mineral waters, even when they contain no earthy salts. If they contain only an alkaline neutral salt, less soluble in its nature than the caustic alkali, the latter will then precipitate it as it unites with the water, nearly in the same way as alcohol does. M. Gioanetti observed this phenomenon in the waters of St Vincent: it is, besides, easy to exhibit it, by pouring caustic alkali into a solution of sulphate of potash or muriate of soda: either of these salts is soon precipitated.

Caustic ammoniac is, in general, less liable to occasion mistakes, when mixed with mineral waters; for it decomposes only salts having a base of aluminous earth or magnesia, but does not precipitate calcareous salts. But there are two important observations to be made on this head. The first is, that the ammoniac must be very caustic, not containing a single particle of carbonic acid; if not in this pure state, it decomposes salts with a base of lime, by double affinity. The second is, that this mixture must not be left exposed to the air, when we desire to know in what manner it acts some hours after its formation; for, as has been very properly observed by M. Gioanetti, this salt, in a short time, attracts carbonic acid from the atmosphere,
and

and thus becomes capable of decomposing calcareous salts. To remove every doubt concerning so important a matter, I made three decisive experiments.—After dissolving in distilled water, a few grains of sulphate of lime, prepared from transparent calcareous spar, with very pure sulphuric acid, (a precaution indispensibly requisite,—as Spanish white, or chalk, contains both magnesia and river water), I separated the solution into two parts. Into the first, I poured a few drops of ammoniac very recently prepared and very caustic. I put this mixture into a close-stopped phial. After eight-and-forty hours, it was clear and transparent, without any sediment: No decomposition had, therefore, taken place. The second portion was treated in the same way, with ammoniac, but put into a vessel admitting air. At the end of a few hours, there was formed on the upper part of it, a cloud, which became, by degrees, thicker, and was at last precipitated. The precipitate afforded a lively effervescence with sulphuric acid, and thereby formed sulphate of lime. The carbonic acid contained in this precipitate must have been supplied by the ammoniac, by which it had been attracted from the atmosphere. This combination of carbonic acid and ammoniac forms ammoniacal carbonate, capable of decomposing calcareous salts by a double affinity,—as has been shewn by Dr Black, M. Jacquin, and several other chemists,—and as any person may see, on pouring a solution of ammoniacal carbonate into a solution of sulphate of lime, which caustic ammoniac does not render turbid. Lastly, to make myself still more certain of the phænomena of this second experiment, I took the first portion of the water united with the ammoniac; which, having been preserved in a close vessel, had lost nothing of its transparency. I turned the mouth of the phial containing it
upon

upon a funnel belonging to a very small pneumato-chemical apparatus, and passed into this mixture, by means of a syphon, the carbonic acid gas disengaged from the effervescent fixed alkali by the sulphuric acid. As this acid passed in bubbles through the mixture, it became turbid, in the same way as lime-water on the same occasion. On filtering it, chalk was found on the filter; and the filtered ammoniacal sulphate, by evaporation. The gaseous water, or liquid carbonic acid, produced the same decomposition in another mixture of sulphate of lime and caustic ammoniac. This decisive experiment fully proves, that it is only by double affinity, and by the addition of carbonic acid, that ammoniac decomposes sulphate of lime. From this it appears, that when we need to preserve a mixture of mineral water with ammoniac, for a few hours, (which is at times necessary, as there are some earthy salts which it decomposes but very slowly), this experiment must be performed in a perfectly close vessel, lest access of air occasion a deceitful result. This precaution is, in general, highly necessary in the use of all reagents: Bergman and M. Gioanetti have also given directions for performing it. I shall here add an observation concerning the use of ammoniac. As it is not easy to obtain ammoniac absolutely caustic, and as it is indispensibly necessary to have it such in analysing mineral waters; a simple process may be used, of which I have often found the advantage. Pour a little ammoniac into a retort, having its extremity immersed in the mineral water: heat the retort gently; the ammoniac gas will then be disengaged, and will pass, in an highly caustic state, into the water. If it produce a precipitate, the mineral water must certainly contain either aluminous or magnesian salts, or sulphate of iron: the colour of the precipitate will show the particular nature of the salt.

salt. This precipitate most frequently consists of the chalk which was dissolved in the water, by means of carbonic acid. The ammoniac absorbs that acid, and the chalk is then deposited. It is hard to say, from the properties of the earthy precipitate, formed in mineral water by caustic ammoniac, to which of the two bases it is to be referred, and whether the neutral salt decomposed be magnesian or aluminous. But the manner in which it is formed, will indicate its character. On dissolving six grains of sulphate of magnesia in four ounces of distilled water, and six grains of alum in the same quantity of this fluid, and causing a little ammoniac gas to pass into each of these solutions; the former became instantaneously turbid; but twenty minutes elapsed before the alum began to be precipitated. Care had been taken to have the phial which contained this mixture very closely stopped. The same phenomena took place with nitrate and muriate of magnesia, and aluminous earth, dissolved in an equal quantity of distilled water, and treated with the same precautions. The rapidity or slowness with which a mineral water is precipitated by the addition of ammoniac gas, is therefore a criterion by which we may distinguish the nature of the terrene salt which that alkali decomposes. In general, salts with a base of magnesia are much more common in water, than salts with a base of aluminous earth. I must not forget to mention a fact related by Bergman: Ammoniac will form, with sulphate of magnesia, a compound in which a portion of that neutral salt, not decomposed, is combined with a portion of ammoniacal sulphate. Perhaps this undecomposed portion of the sulphate of magnesia forms, with the ammoniacal sulphate, a mixed neutral salt, resembling ammoniaco-mercurial muriate, or *alembroth salt*. Ammo-

niac.

niac, therefore, precipitates only a part of magnesia, and cannot indicate the exact quantity of *Epsom-salt* to which it serves for a base. I would therefore prefer lime-water for ascertaining the nature and the quantity of salts with a base of magnesia contained in mineral waters. It possesses likewise the property of precipitating salts with a base of aluminous earth, much more speedily, and in much greater abundance than ammoniac gas *.

Concentrated sulphuric acid produces a dull white precipitate in water, containing barytes : but as this earth is but very seldom found in mineral waters, I pass to the other effects of this reagent. When it produces bubbles in any mineral water, it indicates the presence either of chalk, carbonate of soda, or pure carbonic acid. The presence of each of these substances, is distinguished by some peculiar phenomena. When we heat water, containing chalk, after pouring into it sulphuric acid, there are speedily formed a pellicle, and a sediment of sulphate of lime ; which does not happen on the same occasion to waters simply alkaline. It would, at first, appear, that sulphate of lime must be precipitated as soon as sulphuric acid is poured into water containing chalk : but this very seldom happens without the help of heat ; as these waters generally contain an excess of carbonic acid, which promotes the solution of sulphate of lime ;
and

* The Reader will perceive, that I am repeating several facts which have been previously mentioned in the course of the work. I have made no scruple of doing so, in order to render this little treatise on the analysis of mineral waters the more intelligible and compleat ; and in order to exhibit together, all those principles and facts concerning the processes for analysing them, which it appears so absolutely necessary for him to possess who engages in experiments of this nature.

and they must be deprived of that acid before the salt can be separated. Convincing evidence of this fact may be obtained by pouring a few drops of concentrated sulphuric acid into a certain quantity of lime-water, precipitated and afterwards clarified by carbonic acid. If the lime-water contain a good deal of regenerated calcareous earth, a precipitate of sulphate of lime will be formed, either in a few minutes, or more slowly, and in proportion as the free carbonic acid is separated. If a precipitate be not formed simply by rest, which happens when the water contains but little sulphate of lime, and a considerable excess of carbonic acid, exposure to a gentle heat will produce in the liquor a pellicle and a precipitate of calcareous sulphate.

The red nitrous acid is recommended by Bergman for precipitating sulphur from *hepatized* waters. To prove the certainty of the fact, all that is necessary, is, to pour a few drops of this ruddy fuming acid into distilled water, into which gas disengaged by acids from caustic alkaline sulphure has been previously introduced, through a pneumato-chemical apparatus. This artificial *hepatized* water, which differs from natural sulphureous waters in being more highly charged with mineralizing matter, and consequently liable to be more easily decomposed, affords a precipitate with nitrous acid, in the space of a few moments. This precipitate is of a yellowish white colour: when collected on a filter and dried, it burns with the flame and smell peculiar to sulphur, of which it possesses all the characteristic properties. It appears that nitrous acid alters sulphurated hydrogenous gas, as well as all other inflammable matters, in consequence of its containing such a quantity of oxygen, in that particular state in which it exists in it. Scheele has recommended the oxygenated muriatic acid for precipitating sulphur from these

these same waters. Only a very little of it must be used; for any extraordinary quantity burns the sulphur, and reduces it to sulphuric acid, as I have observed of the water of Enghien. The sulphureous acid precipitates sulphur from mineral waters with great facility.

No reagent is more imperfectly known, in respect to the manner in which it acts, than the alkaline lixivium of blood, called *phlogisticated alkali*. Chemists have long ago observed, that this liquor contains Prussian blue ready formed. It was thought that this blue might be separated from it by an acid; and it has been proposed, in this state, as a substance capable of detecting iron in mineral waters. Can the colouring part of Prussian blue be contained in the lixivium of the blood, as was Bucquet's opinion, and as has been since asserted by M. Baunach? However that may be, that lixivium ought not to be employed. Macquer, in consequence of his discovery concerning the decomposition of Prussian blue by alkalis, has proposed the use of potash saturated with the colouring matter of this blue, for the purpose of ascertaining the existence of iron in mineral waters. However, as this liquor still contains a little Prussian blue that may be separated by an acid as Macquer has directed, M. Baumé advises to add to this Prussian alkali, two or three ounces of distilled vinegar to the pound, and to digest it by a moderate heat till the whole of the Prussian blue be precipitated. Pure fixed alkali must then be poured in, to saturate the acid of vinegar. Notwithstanding the ingenuity of this process, I have had occasion to observe, that this Prussian alkali purified by vinegar, sometimes deposits blue, at the end of a long time,—especially if evaporated. M. Gioanetti made the same observation, when he evaporated to dryness a quantity of Prussian alkali purified according to M. Baumé's directions. He has proposed two different processes for rendering this liquor more

pure, and freeing it of every particle of iron. In the one, he directs to supersaturate Prussian alkali with distilled vinegar, evaporate it to dryness by a gentle heat, dissolve the mass remaining in the distilled water, and filtrate the solution. All the Prussian blue remains on the filter, and the liquor contains no more of it. The other process consists in neutralizing this alkali with a solution of alum, filtrating the liquor, and separating the sulphate of potash by evaporation. These two liquors afford not an atom of Prussian blue with pure acids, nor yet by evaporation to dryness. Lime-water, saturated with the colouring matter of Prussian blue, of which I have spoken under the article *iron*, does not require all these operations. When poured on a solution of sulphate of iron, it instantaneously forms a pure Prussian blue, without any mixture of green. Acids precipitate from it nothing but a few particles of blue. It therefore contains no iron; and is preferable to Prussian alkalis for the purpose of assaying mineral waters. The cause of this phenomenon must doubtless be, that lime dissolved in water does not act near so powerfully on iron as alkalis. This prussiate of lime appears to me very proper for detecting iron in ferruginous waters, whether gaseous or sulphuric. In fact, as the carbonic gas which holds iron in solution in waters is of an acid nature, it decomposes Prussian lixivium by double affinity, just as well as sulphate of iron does. I tried prussiate of lime on the waters of Spa and Passy: I instantaneously obtained, in that of Spa, a discernible blue, and in that of Passy, a very copious blue. Here, therefore, is a liquor which may be very easily prepared, and contains no Prussian blue; and is therefore very proper for the purpose of indicating the presence of even the smallest quantity of iron in waters. It is a sort of neutral salt, formed by the combination of the Prussic acid, or the colouring

colouring part of Prussian blue with lime. I have observed, in the history of iron, that M. Scheele has deduced the same inference concerning the utility of this liquor, from an account of a trial of it which I published in the year 1780.

Nut-gall, and all four, astringent vegetable substances, oak-bark, the fruit of the cypress-tree, the husks of nuts, &c., precipitate solutions of iron, and communicate to that metal different colours, according to its quantity, its particular state, and the state of the water in which it is dissolved. There are a vast variety of shades of this colour, from a pale rose-colour, to the deepest black. It is acknowledged, that water's deriving a purple colour from a mixture of tincture of nut-gall, is no proof that iron exists in it in a metallic state; for sulphate and carbonate of iron likewise take a purple colour by the infusion of nut-gall. It is rather the quantity of the iron, the degree of its adherence to the water, and the stage to which the decomposition of the solution is advanced, to which the diversities of colour, observable in these precipitations, are to be ascribed; as has been very well observed by M. Duchanoy, in his *Essays on the Art of forming Factitious Mineral Waters*. We have formerly mentioned, that the astringent principle is in some measure a peculiar acid, as it combines with alkalis, gives a red tinge to blue vegetable colours, decomposes alkaline sulphures, and combines with metallic oxides. To ascertain the presence of iron in a mineral water, powder of nut-gall, a cold infusion of the same substance, and a tincture formed from it with alcohol are employed. The tincture is preferred to the other two preparations; being much less liable to alteration than the solution in water, which soon becomes mouldy. What is more singular, the products of distilled nut-gall likewise colour ferruginous solutions. The solution of it in acids, in al-

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kalis,

kalis, in oils, or in æther, exhibits the same phænomenon. The state of the iron which this matter precipitates from acids is very little known: it is a sort of neutral salt, which, though very black, is not subject to the attraction of the magnet. It dissolves slowly, and without any perceptible effervescence, in acids. The action of fire deprives it of these properties, and renders it subject to attraction. Nut-gall is so powerful a reagent, that one drop of its tincture will, in the space of five minutes, colour water containing sulphate of iron, only in the proportion of one twenty-fourth part of a grain to nearly three pints.

The two last reagents which we shall propose to be used in examining waters, are the solutions of silver and mercury in the nitric acid. These solutions have been used to detect the sulphuric and the muriatic acid in mineral waters. But several other substances will also precipitate them, which contain not a particle of either of those acids. The white, ponderous stræ which the solution of silver produces in water containing muriate of soda, only in the proportion of half a grain to the pint, demonstrate, in a very simple and unequivocal manner, the presence of the acid of that salt: But they do not, in the same manner, detect the sulphuric acid; for, by Bergman's calculation, at least thirty grains of sulphate of soda to the pint, are necessary to its producing a sensible effect. Add to this, that fixed alkali, chalk, and magnesia, precipitate the nitric solution of silver in a much more distinct manner. The precipitation of a mineral water by this solution cannot therefore serve to determine, in a precise manner, to what saline or earthy substance its mineralization is owing.

The solution of mercury by the nitric acid, is still more liable to occasion mistakes. It not only indicates the presence of the sulphuric and the muriatic acids in
waters,

waters, but is also precipitated, in a yellowish powder, by alkaline and earthy carbonates; a property which might occasion mistakes with respect to the sulphuric acid. It is commonly thought, that the very copious white precipitate which it produces in water, must be owing to the presence of a muriatic salt; but mucilages and extractive substances display the same phenomenon,—as is at present well known to all chemists. Besides these errors and uncertainties to which we are liable in applying the nitric solution of mercury to this purpose, in consequence of its producing the same precipitate with various substances, the state of the solution itself is likely to occasion others; of which we need to be aware, in order to avoid some blunders of no small consequence, which we may otherwise commit in analysing waters. Bergman has taken notice of a part of the singular diversities observable in this solution, in consequence of its being prepared hot or cold,—especially with respect to the colour of the precipitates which it affords by different intermedia: But he has not said a word concerning the property which this solution possesses, of being liable to precipitation by distilled water, when highly saturated with the mercurial oxide; although M. Monnet had announced this fact in his *Treatise on the Solution of Metals*. As this is a matter of great importance in regard to the analysis of waters, I therefore engaged in a more particular examination of it, with a view to ascertain and establish, at least something concerning it; and I succeeded, as I am about to relate, by a very simple process. I made a great many solutions of mercury in very pure nitric acid, with different proportions of the two substances, hot and cold; and using acids of various degrees of strength. The following were the results of my experiments.

1. Solutions prepared cold, are, with more or less rapidity, charged with a quantity of mercury, which is greater or smaller, according as the nitric acid is more or less concentrated. But, whatever quantity of mercury a concentrated acid may have dissolved cold, this solution is never precipitated by water. I dissolved, in cold, two drachms and a half of mercury, in two drachms of red, and highly fuming nitrous acid: the whole weighed, in a bottle containing an ounce of distilled water, one ounce, four drachms, and five grains. The combination took place with amazing rapidity: More than one fourth of the acid was lost in very thick nitrous gas, and in aqueous vapours exhaled by the heat of the mixture. This solution was of a dark-green colour, and very transparent. I poured some drops of it into half an ounce of distilled water: there were immediately formed some whitish striae, which were dissolved by shaking, and did not yield a precipitate. This, however, was the most concentrated solution that I could prepare in a cold temperature: it displayed the most considerable motion and effervescence, and yielded the largest quantity of ruddy vapours. As it had deposited crystals, I added two drachms of distilled water, which dissolved the whole, without exhibiting any appearance of a precipitation. Such, therefore, as are prepared in a cold temperature, with common nitric acid, and half their weight of mercury, can be in no danger of being precipitated by water, and may be confidently employed in the analysis of mineral waters.

2. However weak the nitric acid, when exposed over mercury to a considerable heat, it dissolves more of the metal than the same acid cold will dissolve, even in the strongest state. The solution is of a light-yellow colour, and fat and thick: by rest, it precipitates a yellowish, shapeless mass, which, with boiling water, may be changed into
yellow

yellow oxide, or beautiful *turbith*. This solution, when poured into distilled water, forms a very copious precipitate, of a yellow colour resembling *turbith*. A solution prepared in a cold temperature, will exhibit the same result, if exposed to a heat so intense as to make it exhale a good deal of nitrous gas. These heated solutions should not be employed in the analysis of mineral waters; for they are decomposed by distilled water.

3. The only difference between these two sorts of solutions appears to be, that there is a much larger quantity of mercurial oxide in that which is precipitated by water, than in that which is not decomposable in this fluid. I proved this truth by a comparative evaporation of equal quantities of the two solutions, in medical phials, in order to reduce them to red precipitate. I obtained, from the solution which is liable to precipitation by water, one-fourth more than from the other. The specific gravities likewise afford a criterion by which the respective proportions of the oxide of mercury in these different liquors may be estimated. I compared the weights of equal quantities of three different solutions of mercury. One of them, which yielded no precipitate in distilled water, and had been formed by the first of the above-mentioned operations, weighed one ounce, one drachm, and sixty-seven grains, in a bottle containing an ounce of distilled water. The second, which had been prepared by a very gentle heat, communicated a light, opaline colour to distilled water, without producing any very discernible precipitate: it weighed, in the same bottle, one ounce, six drachms, and twenty-four grains. Lastly, the third of these mercurial solutions, which was pretty hot, and precipitated a true *turbith* mineral, of a dirty-yellow colour in distilled water, weighed one ounce, seven drachms, and twenty-five grains. I had

still one decisive experiment to make, which might either confirm or refute my opinion. If the solution which afforded a precipitate in distilled water, owed that property to its containing an excess of mercurial oxide; in that case, the addition of more acid might be expected to render it incapable of yielding a precipitate; and this actually happened. On pouring aquafortis into a solution which was decomposable by water, it was immediately rendered incapable of yielding a precipitate to that fluid, and reduced into the same state with that which is prepared slowly, without the application of any greater heat than the temperature of the atmosphere. M. Monnet has already recommended this process, to preserve crystals of mercurial nitrate from being reduced to oxide by the contact of the air. By a contrary process, and by evaporating a portion of the acid of a good solution not susceptible of precipitation by water, it may be reduced to a solution containing a much larger proportion of mercurial oxide, and consequently susceptible of decomposition by water. It may be restored to its former state, by adding a quantity of acid equal to what it has lost.

These considerations appeared to me of importance, in order to render the effects of reagents on water, somewhat less uncertain. But, whatever the accuracy with which we proceed in these researches, however extensive our knowledge of the degrees of purity, and the different states of the substances which are combined with mineral waters, in order to discover their principles; if it must be acknowledged, that each of those reagents indicates the presence of two or three different matters; we must be always at a loss to ascertain the particular nature of the results which they at any time produce. Lime, for instance, seizes carbonic acid: it
precipitates

precipitates both salts that have alumina or magnesia for their base, and metallic salts: Ammoniac produces the same effect: fixed alkali precipitates both these and calcareous salts: calcareous prussiate, prussiate of potash, and gallic alcohol, precipitate sulphate and carbonate of iron: the nitric solutions of silver and mercury decompose all sulphuric and muriatic salts, however different, or however mingled together in the same water;—they are also decomposed themselves, by alkalis, chalk, and magnesia. Amid these complicated phænomena, how is it possible to discern the peculiar nature of any alteration produced in water by any of those reagents, or to distinguish, from their operation, whether the water be simple or compound?

These questions, though very perplexing at a time when chemistry was not conscious of all her strength, may now, however, be discussed, even with hopes of resolving them in a satisfactory manner.—In the first place, I observe, that the nature of reagents is much better known than it was a few years ago, and their reaction on the principles of waters much more accurately determined; and, from these circumstances, there is good reason to think, that they may now be used with much more advantage than has been hitherto imagined. Yet, among the many skilful chemists who have employed their labours in the analysis of waters, none but M. Baumé, Bergman, and Gioanetti, have had any idea of the advantages which may be derived from a more liberal use of those substances. Chemists have long been in use to examine mineral waters by reagents in very small quantities, and commonly in glasses: the phænomena of the precipitation produced in this case are carefully observed, but the experiment is carried no farther. M. Baumé, in his Chemistry,

try, advises to saturate a certain quantity of mineral water which you wish to examine, with fixed alkali and acids, to collect the precipitates, and examine their nature. Bergman thinks, that from the weight of the precipitates obtained from such mixtures, the quantity of the mineralizing principles contained in the waters may be estimated. Other chemists, too, have tried this method ; but always with some particular views: Nobody has ever thought of making a regular and compleat analysis of mineral waters by this process. To accomplish it, in my opinion, several pounds of mineral water should be mixed with each reagent, till the reagent cease to produce a precipitate from the water. It may be left for the space of twenty-four hours in a close-stopped vessel, to deposit the precipitate ;—then filtrate the mixture, and, after weighing and drying it on a stove, examine the precipitate which remains on the filter by the usual methods. Thus you may discover, with certainty, the nature of the substance on which the reagent has acted, and determine the cause of the decomposition which it has produced. Order may be observed in these operations, by first mixing the waters with those substances which are least capable of altering them, and proceeding to the application of such substances as may produce on them a greater variety of changes, and those most difficult to estimate. I usually proceed in the following manner in this sort of analysis. After examining the taste, colour, weight, and all the other physical properties of a mineral water, I pour four pounds of lime-water on an equal quantity of the fluid which I am examining : if no precipitate is formed in the space of twenty four hours, I am sure that the water contains neither free carbonic acid, alkaline carbonate, neutral salts with a base of aluminous earth or magnesia, nor metallic salts. But when
a precipitate

a precipitate is either instantaneously or gradually formed, I filtrate the mixture, and examine the chemical properties of the sediment. When the sediment has no taste, is insoluble in water, effervesces with acids, and forms with the sulphuric acid an insipid salt, almost insoluble in water; I conclude, that it is chalk, and that the lime-water has taken up no principle but carbonic acid from the mineral water. Again, when the precipitate is but scanty, is not readily deposited, produces no effervescence, and affords with sulphuric acid a styptic, or bitter, and very soluble salt, it must then consist of magnesia or aluminous earth, or possibly of both. I need not here enlarge upon the means for distinguishing between these two substances; they must be already well known. I shall only add, that such a variety of those means may be used, as to leave no doubt with respect to the nature of the substance precipitated.

After this process of examination with lime-water, I pour on the same mineral water one or two drachms of very caustic ammoniac, or introduce into it ammoniac gas, disengaged from that liquid salt by heat. When the water is saturated, I leave the mixture to rest in a close vessel for four and twenty hours: If I then find a precipitate formed, as it can be owing only to either ferruginous salts, or to salts with a base of magnesia or alumina, I examine its nature by the different operations mentioned above, under the account of the trial by lime. But as ammoniac gas does not act in so uniform a manner as lime-water, which effects the same decompositions, it is proper to observe, that this gas is to be employed only as an auxiliary, from which such accurate results are not to be expected as from the operation of the preceding reagent.

After

After the salts with a base of aluminous earth or magnesia, have been discovered with lime-water or ammoniac gas; potash or soda will detect those having a base of lime, such as calcareous sulphate, and calcareous muriate. With this view, I precipitate a few pounds of the water which I examine, with either of these fixed alkalis in liquor, till such time as the water cease to be turbid. As the alkali decomposes salts having a base of aluminous earth, as well as those which owe their formation to lime;—if the precipitate resemble that which I obtained by the application of lime-water, in form, colour, and quantity, I presume that the water contains no calcareous salt; and this conjecture is usually confirmed by a chemical analysis. But when the mixture becomes much more turbid than that which was formed with lime-water, and when the sediment is more ponderous and copious, and sooner deposited; I then infer, that it contains lime with a mixture of magnesia, or alumina. I ascertain this, by treating the sediment by the different operations for the purpose, already described. It may be naturally conceived, that the iron precipitated by reagents, at the same time with the salino-terrene substances, must be distinguishable by its colour and taste, and that the quantity of the metal separated by these processes, must be too small to have any influence on the results.

I need not here explain what substances the sulphuric acid, the nitrous acid, nut-gall, and calcareous and alkaline prussiates, are capable of precipitating, when used as reagents. What I have said above on the general effects of these matters, may be considered as sufficient. I shall only add, that when mixed in a large proportion with mineral waters, they produce precipitates, from an examination of which we may ascertain the nature

ture and the proportions of their principles ; a process which has been performed by Messrs Bergman and Gioanetti.

A consideration of the products which nitric solutions of silver or mercury produce in mineral waters, will detain us longer. These are the best reagents for examining large quantities of water, when we wish to ascertain the nature of the acids which waters may contain. Mineral waters may be considered as completely analysed, when the acids which they contain are known : for the acids are generally combined with some of the bases liable to be detected by the preceding reagents. The colour, form, and quantity of the precipitates formed by solutions of mercury and silver, have hitherto been regarded by chemists as indicating sufficiently the nature of the acids to which their formation is owing. A thick, weighty sediment, instantaneously formed, indicates the presence of the muriatic acid. If scanty, white, and crystallized, with nitrate of silver,—yellowish and shapeless with nitrate of mercury, and in both instances but slowly deposited, it is then to be ascribed to sulphuric acid. However, as these two acids are often found together in the same water, and as alkali and lime likewise decompose these solutions, the results are rather uncertain, unless we attend at the same time to the physical properties of the precipitates. They must, therefore, be examined in a more particular manner. To this end, mix the solutions of silver and mercury with five or six pounds of the water which you wish to analyse ; at the end of twenty-four hours, filtrate the mixtures, dry the sediments, and then treat them with the usual processes. On heating in a retort the precipitate produced by the nitric solution of mercury, the portion of that metal which combines with muriatic acid, volatilizes into mild mercury ;

mercury; and that which is combined with fulphuric acid, remains at the bottom of the vessel, and is of a reddish colour. These two salts may be likewise distinguished from each other, on this occasion, by the phænomena which they exhibit on burning coals. Sulphate of mercury exhales sulphureous acid, and takes a red colour; mercurial muriate remains white, and is volatilized without diffusing any smell of sulphur. These phænomena likewise serve to enable us to distinguish such precipitates as may be formed by alkaline substances contained in waters; for alkaline substances never give out a sulphureous smell, nor are they volatile without decomposition.

The precipitates produced by the combination of mineral waters with the nitric solution of silver, may be examined with the same facility. Sulphate of silver is more soluble than muriate of silver; and these two salts are therefore separable by distilled water. Muriate of silver may be distinguished by its fixity and fusibility, and still more readily by its being less decomposable than sulphate of the same metal. Sulphate of silver, when put upon coals, exhales a sulphureous smell, and leaves an oxide of silver, which may be melted without any addition. I am not to speak here of all the chemical processes which might be adopted to distinguish between, and to separate these two salts of silver. It is enough, that some of them are here described.

§ VI. *Examination of Mineral Waters by Distillation.*

DISTILLATION is used in the analysis of mineral waters, to distinguish the gaseous substances which they may happen to contain. Those substances are either air, more or less pure, or carbonic acid, or sulphurated

ated hydrogenous gas. To distinguish the nature and the quantity of the gaseous substances contained in any mineral water,—take a few pounds of the water, and put them into a retort of such a size that they may fill it only one half or two thirds full. To this vessel adapt a curve tube entering, by its other end, into a glass filled with mercury. When the apparatus is thus disposed, heat the retort till the water fairly boil, or till elastic fluid cease to pass into the glass containing the mercury. When the operation is ended, abstract from the bulk of the gas obtained, the air that was contained in the empty part of the retort. The rest is the aeriform fluid that was contained in the mineral water, the nature of which may be soon known, by trying it with a lighted lamp, or tincture of turnsole, or lime-water. If it take fire, and emit a foetid smell, it is sulphurated hydrogenous gas: If it extinguish a taper, redden turnsole, and precipitate lime-water, it must be carbonic acid: Lastly, if it maintain combustion without exhibiting flame, if it be inodorous, and if it alter neither turnsole nor lime-water, it is then atmospheric air. The atmospheric air thus obtained from mineral waters may happen to be purer than the common air of the atmosphere. We can then judge of its purity from the manner in which it contributes to combustion, or by mixing it with nitrous or hydrogenous gas in Messrs Fontana and Volta's eudiometers. The process employed to obtain gaseous matters from mineral waters, is entirely the invention of modern chemistry. Formerly, they for this purpose used a wet bladder, which was fitted to the mouth of a bottle full of mineral water. The fluid was then shaken; and from the manner in which the bladder was swelled, an idea was formed of the quantity of gas contained in the water. We know, at present, that
this

this operation is not to be depended upon ; for water never gives out all its gas without ebullition ; and the sides of a wet bladder alter the elastic fluid which is obtained, and destroy its nature. It is not necessary to take notice, that the phænomena which take place in the water, when gas is separated, should be carefully observed ; and that when the taste, the lightness, and the sparkling of the water, shew it to contain a large proportion of gas, the quantity of it submitted to distillation should then be proportionably smaller.

Such is the operation recommended by modern chemists for the extracting of elastic fluids from waters. I shall observe, 1. That with respect to acidulous waters, this process cannot be depended upon, without a very accurate calculation of the weight of the air, and the degree of pressure to which the elastic fluid is exposed in the glasses ;—and that, as it is very difficult to estimate these with sufficient accuracy, the absorption of this acid by lime-water, as has been proposed by M. Gioanetti, appears preferable. 2. Though it be recommended by Bergman for the extracting of sulphurated hydrogenous gas from sulphureous waters, it will not answer this end ; for boiling heat decomposes this gas ; and it is likewise decomposed by mercury, which passes into the state of æthiops, as soon as it comes into contact with this elastic fluid. On this account, in my analysis of the waters of Enghien, near Montmorency, I have proposed the use of litharge for the absorption of this gas in a cold state, and for purifying sulphureous waters from all the sulphur which they contain.

§ VII. *Examination of Mineral Waters by Evaporation.*

EVAPORATION is generally considered as the most certain mode of obtaining all the principles contained in mineral waters. We have above observed, what we may here repeat, from the experiments of Messrs Vcnel and Cornette, that long boiling may happen to decompose saline matters dissolved in waters; for which reason, we have rather recommended the use of reagents. Evaporation, however, affords so much additional information, when employed together with the analysis by reagents, that it will be proper to give a particular account of the best method for conducting it.

As the purpose of this operation is, to obtain the fixed principles of mineral water, it is evident, that in order to distinguish the nature and proportion of those principles, a certain quantity of the water must be submitted to the operation; and accordingly, the weaker the proportion in which those principles exist in the water, so much the more of that fluid should be used. Twenty pounds of the water may be sufficient, when it contains a good deal of saline matter. But when only a very small proportion of such matter appears to be dissolved in it, a much larger quantity must be evaporated; at times, even no less than some hundred pounds. The nature and shape of the vessels in which mineral waters are exposed to evaporation, are not matters of indifference. Those made of any metal, except silver, are liable to be altered by water: glass vessels, again, of a certain size, are very likely to crack or split: vessels of very compact and well varnished earth, are the most suitable for this purpose, although, when the varnishing cracks, they are liable to absorb the saline matters. Vessels of

Vol. III. C c porcelain,

porcelain, without a coating, would, no doubt, be the most answerable ; but these again are too dear. Chemists have proposed different methods of evaporating mineral waters. Some advise to distil them to dryness in close vessels, that no extraneous substances from the atmosphere may mix with the residue ; but this operation is too tedious. Others recommend evaporation by a moderate heat, not sufficient to make them boil ; as a boiling heat is believed to alter their fixed principles, and to deprive them always of a certain part of those principles. This is the opinion of Venet and Bergman. M. Monnet, on the contrary, would have us to boil the water ; as its motion, when boiled, prevents extraneous matters to insinuate themselves from the atmosphere. Bergman, to avoid this inconvenience, directs us to cover the evaporatory vessel with a lid having a hole in the middle, through which the vapours may make their escape. This last method greatly retards the evaporation, as it diminishes the surface of the fluid in so considerable a degree. It must be employed, at first, till the vapours become strong enough to remove the dust. But the chief difference among chemists, in respect to the mode of conducting this operation, is, that some follow Boulduc in separating the substances which are deposited as the evaporation goes on, in order to obtain each of the principles of the water in a pure, insulated state ; whereas others would have the evaporation carried on to dryness, before any such separation be attempted. I agree with Bergman, in thinking this last method the most expeditious and the most certain : for whatever be the precautions adopted in following the former method, in separating the different matters as they are deposited or crystallized, they are never obtained pure, but always need to be examined by a farther analysis. Besides, this method is ne-

ver exact, on account of the loss occasioned by so many filtrations: lastly, it is very difficult and perplexing, and renders the evaporation exceedingly tedious. Mineral waters should be evaporated to dryness in glass capsules, on a water-bath: it would be still better to use glass retorts on a sand-bath.

During the course of this evaporation, different phenomena are observed. When the water is acidulous, it appears full of bubbles, as soon as the heat begins to make an impression upon it: while the carbonic acid is disengaged, a pellicle and a sediment are formed, consisting of chalk and carbonate of iron: after the formation of these pellicles, there is a crystallization of sulphate of lime: lastly, muriates of potash and soda are crystallized in cubes on the surface; and, to obtain the deliquescent salts, the evaporation must be continued to dryness.

Let the residue then be weighed, and put into a small phial, with three or four times its weight of alcohol. Shake the whole, and after letting it rest for a few hours, filtrate it; preserve the liquor apart, and dry, by a gentle heat, or in the air, that portion of the residue on which the spiritous fluid has not acted. When sufficiently dry, it is to be carefully weighed; and the loss which it has suffered shews what quantity of calcareous or magnesian muriate it contained, as these salts are very soluble in alcohol. We will speak afterwards of the method of ascertaining the existence of these two salts in this spiritous fluid.

The residue, when properly dried, is next to be diluted with eight times its weight of cold distilled water; and this mixture, after being left to settle for several hours, must be filtrated. The residue is again dried, and then boiled half an hour in four or five hundred

times its weight of cold distilled water. It is next to be again filtrated; and after this last operation, there remains only what the cold water and the boiled water have been insufficient to dissolve. The cold water would take up the neutral salts, such as sulphate of soda or magnesia, muriate of soda or potash, and fixed alkalis, especially soda combined with carbonic acid. Boiling water in a large proportion, dissolves only sulphate of lime. There are therefore four substances to be examined after these different operations on the matter obtained by evaporation: 1. The residue which is insoluble in alcohol, and in water in different temperatures: 2. Salts dissolved in alcohol: 3. The salts which have been taken up by the cold water: 4. Lastly, Those which have been taken up by the boiling water. We now proceed to the experiments for distinguishing these different substances.

1. The residue which has withstood the action of alcohol, and of cold and hot water, may consist of carbonate of magnesia and iron, of alumina, and of quartz. The two last of these substances are very rarely to be found in waters, but the three first are very common. A lighter or deeper brown or yellow colour, indicates the presence of iron. When the colour of the residue is a light grey, it contains no iron. When it contains any of that metal, Bergman advises to moisten it, and expose it to the air till it rust. Vinegar then no longer acts upon it. To explain the methods for separating these different matters, let us suppose an insoluble residue, consisting of all the five substances which we have allowed that it may contain. We must begin with moistening and exposing it to the rays of the sun. When the iron is sufficiently rusted, the residue may be digested in distilled vinegar. This acid dissolves the lime and magnesia.

magnesia. By evaporating the mixture, we obtain calcareous acetite, which is distinguished from acetite of magnesia by not attracting moisture from the atmosphere. These two salts may be separated by deliquescence, or rather by pouring some sulphuric acid into the solution containing them. The sulphuric acid forms sulphate of lime, which is precipitated: if there were any magnesian acetite, the sulphate of magnesia, formed by the sulphuric acid, would remain dissolved in the liquor, and might be obtained by an evaporation judiciously conducted. To ascertain the quantity of the magnesian and calcareous earths contained in this residue, precipitate the sulphates of lime and magnesia formed by the sulphuric acid poured into the acetous solution with carbonate of potash, and weigh the precipitates. When the chalk and magnesia of the residue are separated, only iron, aluminas and quartz remain. The iron and aluminas are detached by means of pure muriatic acid, which dissolves both these salts. The iron is precipitated by prussiate of lime, and the aluminas by carbonate of potash: the two substances are then weighed to determine the quantities. The matter which remains after the separation of the aluminas and the iron, is usually quartzose. Its quantity is ascertained by weighing it; and its nature, by melting it with carbonate of soda, by means of the blow-pipe. These are the most accurate processes which have been recommended by Bergman, for the examination of the insoluble residue of mineral waters.

2. The alcohol which was used in washing the dry residue of the waters, is next taken and evaporated to dryness. Bergman directs to treat it with sulphuric acid diluted in water, in the same manner as the acetous solution above taken notice of. But it is to be observed, that by this process only the base of those salts is discovered.

vered. To determine the nature of the acid, which is usually united with magnesia or lime, and sometimes with both in this residue, we must pour upon the dry residue a few drops of strongly concentrated sulphuric acid, which produces an effervescence, and disengages muriatic acid gas, that makes itself known by its smell and white vapour, when the salt under examination owes its formation to that acid. Its existence may likewise be ascertained, by dissolving the whole residue in water, and mixing with it a few drops of the nitric solution of silver. With respect to the base, which, as we have already mentioned, consists either of lime or of magnesia, or of both; the quantity and the nature of its principles may be also determined by sulphuric acid, by the same process which has been explained above in speaking of the application of the acetic acid.

3. The lixivium of the former residue of the mineral water, prepared with eight times its weight of cold distilled water, contains alkaline neutral salts,—such as sulphate of soda, muriates or marine salts, carbonate of potash or soda, and sulphate of magnesia. Sometimes, too, there is a small quantity of sulphate of iron. These salts never exist altogether in mineral waters. Sulphate of soda and carbonate of potash, are but very seldom found in mineral waters; but marine salt is often found in them, in union with carbonate of soda. Sulphate of magnesia likewise exists pretty often in such waters; and they are even sometimes found to contain it in a pretty considerable quantity. When this first washing of the residue of a mineral water contains only one neutral salt; that salt may be very easily obtained by crystallization, and its nature may be known by its form and taste, and by the manner in which it is affected by fire and reagents. But this case is very rare; and it happens

happens much more frequently, that a number of salts are united together in this lixivium: We must then endeavour to separate them by slow evaporation. Even this method does not always fully succeed, with whatever care this first lixivium may be evaporated: each of the salts obtained at different times by evaporation, must be examined anew. It is most commonly carbonate of soda which is deposited in a confused manner among the muriatic salts. These may be separated by a process described by M. Giaconetti: It consists in washing this mixed salt with distilled vinegar;—that acid dissolves the carbonate of soda: Dry the mixture, and wash it anew with alcohol;—the alcohol takes up the acetite of soda, without acting upon the marine salt: Evaporate the spiritous solution to dryness, and calcine the residue;—the vinegar is decomposed and burnt. Nothing remains after this but soda, the exact quantity of which is known.

4. The lixivium of the first residue of mineral water, prepared with four or five times its weight of boiling water, contains nothing but sulphate of lime. Accordingly, pure caustic ammoniac produces no change upon it; but caustic potash forms in it a copious precipitate. By evaporating the lixivium to dryness, the quantity of terrene salt which it contains is exactly known.

§ VIII. *Of Factitious Mineral Waters.*

THE processes which have been described for the examination of the residues obtained by the evaporation of mineral waters, are sufficient for discovering, with the utmost accuracy, whatever different substances may be dissolved in those fluids. Yet we must still advance a step farther, in order to confirm the results of our ana-

lysis: We must imitate nature by a synthetic process, and dissolve in pure water the several substances obtained by analysis, from the mineral water which we have been examining. If the factitious mineral water thus formed, have the same taste and weight, and exhibit the same phænomena with reagents as the natural mineral water which was analysed,—no fuller proof can be required of the accuracy of the analysis. Such artificial combinations happily supply, at all times, in all places, and at a small expence, medicines equally useful for the cure of diseases with natural mineral waters, whose properties are liable to be altered by conveyance from one place to another, and by many other circumstances.

The most celebrated chemists are of opinion, that natural mineral waters may be imitated by art. Macquer observes, that since the discovery of the carbonic acid, and since its power of rendering a great many substances soluble in water has been taken notice of, it is become much easier to prepare factitious mineral waters. Bergman has given directions for the preparation of factitious Spa, Seltz, Pyrmont, &c. waters. In Sweden, he informs us, such waters are used with great success; and he himself had experience of their good effects. M. Duchanoy has published a work, in which he gives a series of processes for the artificial preparation of all the mineral waters used in medicine. We have therefore good reason to hope, that chemistry may render the art of medicine some important services, by supplying such valuable medicines, and by weakening and increasing their energy at pleasure,

A

DISCOURSE

ON

MODERN CHEMISTRY *in General, and on*
its FIRST PRINCIPLES.

IN tracing the history of chemistry for these last twenty years, we find, that, in consequence of the discovery of the different elastic fluids, and their properties, Stahl's theory has lost much of its credit: Chemists have been for some time in doubt, whether to reject or adhere to it, and have formed various theories,—the number of which is scarce inferior to that of those who are seriously engaged in the pursuits of this science. A good many chemists, however, especially in the north, have not yet adopted any new theory, but continue to connect the theory of Phlogiston with the newly discovered facts. But those who are masters of the science in all its extent, must readily perceive, that the manner in which that connection is formed, is far from being natural or satisfactory; and that it consists of forced analogies, the inconsistency of which is sufficiently striking.

The doctrine adopted by several French chemists, at the head of whom we must rank M. Lavoisier, who contrived and laid the foundations of this system, is not subject to the same difficulties. Its simplicity, its systematic progress,

progress, its perspicuity, and the ease with which it is applicable to all the phænomena of chemistry, render it much superior to any of those which still divide such of the philosophers of Europe as have not adopted it. This doctrine has been particularly explained through the whole of this work: But perhaps a short view of it may still be of use to the student; and I have therefore endeavoured to exhibit, in the following Discourse, a brief account of the principles on which it is founded; which may render it more striking, and more easily intelligible, and which will accordingly be a sort of abstract of all the leading phænomena, to which the others may be referred as to so many general heads.

In all chemical experiments, one of the two following phænomena is observed: 1. Heat is either disengaged or fixed: 2. An elastic fluid is either formed or absorbed. After these two general facts are established as invariably certain, it may be naturally conceived, that the properties and action of heat, with the formation and fixation of elastic fluids, are the foundation of the theory of chemistry. These, therefore, are the two great objects which must here engage our attention.

Of Heat, and of the Formation and Fixation of Elastic Fluids.

ALTHOUGH the weight, both of sensible heat, and of combined or latent heat, which we have denominated *caloric*, is at present unknown, and cannot therefore afford any proof of its material or individual existence, yet the whole phænomena of chemistry concur to prove, that it exists as a separate body or substance, possesses certain unvarying properties or characteristics, and
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is uniformly subject to certain laws of affinity. Besides its power to produce, by its action on our organs, that sensation which we denominate *heat*, philosophers have observed it to possess certain distinctive properties which can belong to no other substance, such as rarefaction, or the separation which heat produces of the component particles of all natural bodies; which, by increasing their bulk, diminishes their reciprocal attraction, and, without enlarging the mass, diminishes, in the same proportion, their specific gravity, and strengthens the affinities between the component particles of different bodies. The greater the quantity of caloric accumulated in any body, the more is that substance compressed and condensed; so much the more is its affinity for that body increased; and in the same proportion, too, are the properties of the body changed. Fusion or liquefaction, volatilization or sublimation, the passage of liquids into the form of vapours or elastic fluids,—are effects constantly produced by the penetration of heat into those bodies, or rather by its combination with them. Ice, or water in a solid state, becomes fluid by absorbing a certain quantity of caloric: A larger proportion of the same principle renders it invisible and aeriform. There can be no doubt, that water in a liquid state is a compound of ice with a certain quantity of caloric, and that water in gas or vapour, is equally a compound, of which the principles are the same, but which contains caloric in a larger proportion. Such is the theory of the formation of elastic fluids in general: They are all compounds, consisting of a base more or less solid, and matter of heat or caloric. As this last principle is subject to laws of attraction peculiar to itself; when it escapes from one body, it combines with some other:—or rather,

ther, bodies with which caloric is combined, when they have a stronger attraction for other bodies exhibited to them than for this principle, dismiss it, in order to combine with those other bodies.

There is not a single instance in which these phænomena of the disengagement or fixation of caloric, and the disengagement or fixation of elastic fluids are not observed, either separately or together. From this simple theory, which is in reality nothing but a statement of facts, it appears that all elastic fluids ought to be distinguished by two names; one denoting their aeriform combination with caloric,—of which sort are the generic words, *air*, or *gas*, the first to be used when those substances are proper for maintaining combustion and respiration, the second when they do not contribute to these purposes; the other, a specific name, denoting the particular base of the gas or elastic fluid. It will accordingly be expected, that, in a recapitulation of all the facts of chemistry, we should give an account of the elastic fluids which are either produced and disengaged, or fixed and absorbed in the various phænomena belonging to this science.

All the elastic fluids whose properties are worthy of notice, may be arranged in four classes.

CLASS I.

Elastic Fluids capable of maintaining Combustion, and the Respiration of Animals.

- Species 1. Vital air.
2. Atmospheric air.

CLASS

C L A S S II.

Elastic Fluids unfit for maintaining Combustion and Respiration, and neither saline nor soluble in Water.

- Species 3. Azotic gas.
- 4. Nitrous gas.

C L A S S III.

Elastic Fluids unfit for maintaining Combustion and Respiration, but of a saline Nature, and soluble in water.

- Species 5. Carbonic acid gas.
- 6. Sulphureous acid gas.
- 7. Fluoric acid gas.
- 8. Muriatic acid gas.
- 9. Oxygenated muriatic acid gas.
- 10. Ammoniac gas.

C L A S S IV.

Elastic Fluids neither proper for maintaining Combustion, nor Respiration, but inflammable.

- Species 11. Hydrogenous gas.
- 12. Sulphurated hydrogenous gas.
- 13. Phosphorated hydrogenous gas.
- 14. Hydrogenous gas mixed with azote.
- 15. Hydrogenous gas mixed with carbonic acid.
- 16. Carbonaceous hydrogenous gas.

Of

Of the Nature and leading Properties of these different Species of Elastic Fluids.

I. *VITAL AIR*, called by its discoverer, Dr Priestley, *dephlogisticated air*, and by some other English philosophers, *empyreal air*, and *principium forbile*, is at present extracted from many different matters. *Precipitate per se*, or oxide of mercury, prepared by nitric acid, precipitates of the several mercurial neutral salts formed by alkalis, red oxide of lead sprinkled with a little nitric acid, alkaline and terrene nitrates, nitrate of silver, native oxide of manganese either by itself or sprinkled with sulphuric acid, oxygenated muriatic acid, mercurial acetite, arseniate of zink, all give out either more or less of it when exposed to the action of light and heat. Its disengagement is evidently effected by the uniform action of these two principles. It is not contained ready formed in these bodies: they contain only its solid base, which is melted by caloric and light, and thus reduced into an elastic-fluid state; and as it escapes, the oxides by degrees assume the metallic state. It is also obtained from the leaves of plants or trees exposed in water charged with carbonic acid to the action of the rays of the sun.

Vital air is often mixed with a little azotic gas; only, that obtained from oxide of mercury, from oxide of manganese, or from the leaves of plants, is without it.

Vital air is rather heavier than atmospheric air; it is the only elastic fluid which maintains combustion. Pure vital air is four times as powerful for this effect as atmospheric air; that is to say, a body requiring four cubic feet of atmospheric air to effect its combustion, may be burnt with one cubic foot of vital air. Combustion is accompanied with a good deal of light and heat: these

two phenomena are occasioned by the rapid separation of the fire, which forsakes the base of this air in proportion as that base fixes in the burning body. In some instances of combustion effected by this air, only heat, but no light, is disengaged. This happens when the disengagement is accomplished slowly and by degrees. It contributes also in an eminent manner to respiration. But as there is so much heat disengaged from it, it would appear, that the respiration of pure vital air would be injurious to animals: the blood would be too much rarified by it, and its circulation rendered too rapid.

The base of vital air, by combination with carbone, sulphur, phosphorus, azote, arsenic, &c. forms the carbonic, sulphuric, phosphoric, nitric, arsenic, &c. acids. It is from its possessing this property, that we have denominated this base *oxigene*, or the acidifying principle. It is to be observed, 1. That these combinations do not always take place when those combustible bodies are immersed in vital air; and that different degrees of temperature, above the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, are generally requisite to produce them, at least with sufficient rapidity. 2. That this base or *oxigene* enters into these compounds in different proportions; and that, according as any base is more or less completely saturated, the compound differs in its nature from other compounds not saturated precisely in the same degree. 3. That its affinity for these different matters is not uniformly the same: accordingly, phosphorus robs the arsenic acid of its *oxigene*; the phosphoric acid, again, yields its *oxigene* to coal, &c. 4. That when it passes out of one of those bodies in which it has been fixed in a state very different from that of elastic fluidity, into any other body, a sort of combustion actually takes place; which is indeed very slow, and therefore unaccompanied with either heat

heat or light ; as oxigene, in the state in which it exists in such bodies, is combined with but very little of those principles.

Oxigene combined with hydrogene, forms water ; with metals, it forms metallic oxides. Coal decomposes water and metallic oxides ; having a greater affinity with oxigene, than either hydrogene or metals.

Vital air discolours vegetable and animal substances : When absorbed by fixed oils, it thickens them, and reduces them into a state resembling that of wax. With the muriatic and the acetous acids, it forms oxygenated muriatic acid or radical vinegar.

The heat of the sun, when acting with any considerable energy, disengages oxigene into the state of vital air from many of its combinations ; such as the oxides of mercury, silver, gold, nitric acid, oxygenated muriatic acid, &c.

II. *Atmospheric or common air* is a compound of vital air with azotic gas. One hundred parts of atmospheric air, contain nearly 72 parts of azotic gas and 28 parts of vital air. This explains the reason why only a fourth part of any quantity of atmospheric air is consumed before it becomes unfit for maintaining combustion ; and why the phænomenon of combustion takes place more slowly, and is accompanied with less heat and light in atmospheric, than in pure vital air. But we must observe, that there is not perhaps a single instance of combustion, in which the 28 parts of vital air contained in the common air of the atmosphere, are entirely absorbed and fixed in the combustible body ; and that accordingly, the aeriform residue of atmospheric air remaining after it has contributed to combustion, is scarce ever pure azotic gas, not even when the burnt body remains in a fixed and solid

solid state, without mixing with the elastic fluid. The gas must therefore be still more impure, when the body is burnt under a bell-glass filled with atmospheric air, and affords a residue in a permanent aeriform state; as charcoal, and all organic matters containing it, do.

There are a number of bodies which alter atmospheric air, by absorbing the vital air which it contains. But we know of none that renew and purify it, except the leaves of vegetables; which, when exposed to the rays of the sun, effect a decomposition of carbonic acid and water, in consequence of which, they afford a supply of vital air to the atmosphere.

III. *Azotic gas*, which exists in the atmosphere in a large proportion, is thus named, because it very soon proves fatal to animals, and extinguishes combustion; and accordingly, appears to be in its nature directly opposite to vital air. Dr Priestley called this elastic fluid *phlogisticated air*; imagining that it derived its noxious properties from phlogiston, disengaged out of burning bodies, or odorate matters;—in a word, from all those operations of nature and art, which he has called *phlogisticating processes*.—It has since been proved, that this fluid exists ready formed in the atmosphere, and is only separated by the absorption of vital air. Modern philosophers have made more important discoveries concerning this, than concerning any other elastic fluid.—There are several ways of obtaining pure azotic gas. That which is most generally in use, is the exposing of a quantity of liquid sulphure of potash to a given quantity of atmospheric air under bell-glasses: the vital air is by degrees absorbed; and when it is entirely absorbed, the azotic gas remains pure. We owe this process to Scheele. M. Berthollet has discovered, that it may also be obtain-

ed, by treating muscular flesh, or the fibrous part of the blood, after having washed it well with nitric acid, in an apparatus suitable for collecting and preserving gases: but these animal matters, when used for this purpose, must be perfectly fresh: if altered, they afford, together with the azotic gas, a mixture of carbonic acid. I myself have discovered, that the air-bladder of the carp, which Dr Priestley had before observed to contain noxious air, is full of this fluid, which may be obtained simply by bursting them under bell-glasses filled with water.

Azotic gas is lighter than atmospheric air. It instantly extinguishes burning tapers; and acts, with great rapidity and energy, in destroying the life of animals immersed into it. When mixed with vital air, in the proportion of 72 to 28, it affords facitious atmospheric air: in a larger proportion, it forms an air noxious to animals. Neither water, nor earths, nor acids, are known to act upon this gas: It appears, however, that it is liable to be absorbed by the nitric acid, which it renders ruddy. Mr Cavendish has discovered, that three parts of azotic gas, mixed in glasses with seven parts of vital air, and exposed to the action of the electric spark, are by degrees condensed, so as to form nitric acid: Hence the theory of the formation of this acid in the atmosphere. M. Berthollet has found, that ammoniac is decomposed by hot nitric acid, by oxygenated muriatic acid, and by the detonation of fulminating gold. He has discovered, that ammoniac consists of five parts of azote, and one of hydrogen. He has farther discovered, that animal matters contain a great deal of azote,—that the ammoniac obtained from them by the action of fire and putrefaction, is formed by the union of that azote with hydrogen,—and that plants, which afford this same salt by distillation, afford it in consequence of their containing
azote,

azote, and therefore well deserve the name of *animal plants*, which has been given them by some chemists. I have since satisfied myself by experiment, 1. That of all animal matters, the fibrous part affords the most azotic gas by nitric acid; 2. That after putrefaction, it contains no more azote, but becomes capable to afford a considerable quantity of ammoniac.

These remarkable qualities of azotic gas, are particularly worthy the attention of the physician. They contribute to explain the difference between animal and vegetable matters, the formation of ammoniac putrefaction, and the production of the nitric acid from putrid animal matters.

As this elastic fluid has been by some people confounded with carbonic acid, it is to be remembered, that azotic gas has no sensible taste,—is much lighter than that aeriform acid,—and neither reddens tincture of turnsole, nor precipitates lime water.

IV. *Nitric gas* was in some measure known to Hales; but Dr Priestley is properly the discoverer of it. This elastic fluid is disengaged from nitric acid by the action of a great number of combustible bodies, especially metals, oils, mucilages, and alcohol. It extinguishes lights; it destroys animals; it is neither acid nor alkaline; it is not liable to be altered by pure water. By combination with vital air, it affords nitric acid; being itself nothing but nitric acid, deprived of a part of its oxigene, and consequently a compound of azote and oxigene,—only, containing more azote and less oxigene than the nitric acid. Hence the varieties of this gas, according as azote and vital air are mixed in it in different proportions; and hence the uncertainty of its effects on the eudiometer. From this we understand, why, in several instances,—especially when,

in order to obtain nitrous gas, we use a body very greedy of oxigene, and requiring a considerable quantity of oxigene to saturate it,—the nitrous gas obtained, contains naked azotic gas; and even, sometimes, nothing is obtained but azotic gas. Lastly, It is in consequence of nitric gas possessing this property, that sulphure of potash is enabled to act upon it with such energy. A solution of sulphure of potash, when put into a glass filled with nitrous gas, immediately absorbs a part of the gas: In a short time, the gas is no longer reddened by the contact of air, and becomes fit for maintaining combustion, even better than atmospheric air. It is actually converted into air, somewhat purer than the air of the atmosphere, or containing a larger proportion of vital air than atmospheric air usually contains: But if more nitrous gas be added, and the action of the sulphure still continued, the whole of the vital air is soon absorbed, and what remains is nothing but azotic gas. We may farther observe, that nitrous gas communicates to phlegm a green colour, before extinguishing it; and that, in many instances, its colour is owing to compounds, of which azote forms a part.

These leading properties of nitrous gas, particularly the rapidity of its combination with vital air, shew, that it bears an analogy to combustible bodies; and it has been observed by Macquer, that the artificial formation of nitrous acid by the mixture of these two gases, is a species of combustion; but as it is not accompanied with phlegm, I have not ventured to rank nitrous gas among the inflammable gases.

V. *Carbonic acid gas* was known before any of the other elastic fluids. Dr Black discovered its existence in chalk and alkalis; and at the same time shewed, that it rendered those matters effervescent, mild, and susceptible
of

of crystallization; and that, when deprived of it, alkaline matters become acrid and caustic, and are no longer liable to effervesce, &c. This gas exists in the atmosphere, of which it composes nearly one two-hundredth part; in acidulous waters, and in some subterraneous cavities, such as the *Grotto del Cano*, &c. It is nearly twice as heavy as atmospheric air; its smell is pungent, and its taste acrid; it extinguishes burning bodies,—kills animals,—reddens tincture of turnsole,—precipitates lime-water,—renders chalk soluble in water,—forms, with all alkaline matters, carbonates, a sort of crystallizable neutral salt, in which the properties of the alkali are still discernible, on account of the weakness of the acid. This acid gas, which acts an important part in the phenomena of nature and art, is a compound of carbone and oxigene; of carbone, in the proportion of twenty-eight hundredth parts,—and oxigene, in the proportion of seventy-two hundredth parts. As carbone, of all known bodies, appears to have the strongest affinity for oxigene, the carbonic acid is among those compounds, of which the decomposition is the most difficult, and one of the products the most frequently obtained in chemical analyses. It is formed in all instances in which bodies containing oxigene are heated with coal; as in the reduction of metallic oxides by oils,—in coal itself, &c.—by the decomposition of organic matters containing coal and water, &c.

VI. *Sulphureous acid gas* is obtained, either by the slow combustion of sulphure, or by abstracting from sulphuric acid a part of its oxigene; and is a compound of sulphure with oxigene, containing the latter principle in a more scanty proportion than sulphuric acid. This gas has a sulphureous smell, acrid and pungent, and a very sour taste; it extinguishes burning bodies, and kills ani-

mals : Intense cold condenses it into a liquid state : It reddens and discolours most vegetable blue colours : it combines with water and with ice, and melts the latter of these substances by means of the heat which it gives out as it becomes fixed : it absorbs, by degrees, oxigene from the atmosphere ; and, in consequence of that, passes into the state of sulphuric acid.

VII. *Fluoric acid gas* is disengaged from native fluato of lime, or *vitreous spar*, by sulphuric acid. Its smell and taste are very strong : it dissolves siliceous earth, and holds it suspended in an aeriform invisible state. The contact of water, by fixing it, separates a portion of that earth : Alkalis separate it entirely. The nature of this acid gas is unknown ; and if it be like most other mineral acids, a compound, consisting of a simple acidifiable base with oxigene, its acidifiable radical principle must have a very strong affinity with oxigene ; for even coal is not able to decompose this gas, by detaching that principle.

VIII. *Muriatic acid gas* is nothing but muriatic acid, purified from water, and melted by caloric into an elastic fluid. Its smell, which is lively and suffocating,—its taste, which is very strong,—its solubility in cold water, which readily absorbs it, and separates the heat by which it was maintained in a state of elastic fluidity,—the peculiar neutral salts which it forms with terrene and alkaline bases,—and the white vapour which is observed whenever it comes into contact with water dissolved in the atmosphere,—are its distinguishing characteristics. Its intimate nature, or component principles, are unknown ; its acidifiable base has undoubtedly a very strong affinity with oxigene, as these principles have never yet been separated. Nay, we are about to see, that this acid abstracts
oxigene

oxigene from various other bodies, when they are saturated with it.

IX. *Oxygenated muriatic acid gas* is disengaged with great facility during the reciprocal action of native oxide of manganese and muriatic acid. This peculiar gas is known to be produced by the transition of oxigene from the manganese into the muriatic acid. This gas always retains a colouring part, of a greenish yellow: Its smell is strong and pungent: It is not acid: It weakens and reddens the flame of a taper, but does not extinguish it: It is very quickly fatal to animals: It discolours stuffs, tincture of turnsole, and flowers, rendering them all white: It likewise discolours and whitens yellow wax, &c.: It decomposes ammoniac, which may now be used as a preservative against its noxious effects: the azotic gas of the ammoniac is separated, while the oxigene of the muriatic gas combines with its hydrogen to form water: It condenses fixed oils: It oxidates metals; and even mercury and gold are subject to its influence: It is soluble in water, and communicates to that fluid all its properties: The contact of light by degrees decomposes it, and reduces it into the state of pure muriatic acid.—The formation of oxygenated muriatic acid, and oxygenated muriatic acid gas, is one of the most remarkable discoveries of modern chemistry. This discovery shews, that the relations of muriatic acid to combustible bodies are directly contrary to those of the other acids. All the other acids appear to be decomposable by most of the metals, which have in general a stronger affinity with oxigene than the combustible bases of those acids have. The muriatic acid, on the contrary, is not decomposed by any metal: none of them detaches its oxigene; and in consequence of this, it scarce acts on any.

of the metals. Its base, which is still unknown, is not only intimately connected with the acidifying principle, but even detaches that principle from several other metallic oxides, as well as from oxide of manganese; when saturated, it is no longer acid; as excess of oxigene destroys its acidity. The case is directly contrary with many other combustible bodies. Its excess of oxigene enables it to act upon metals, on which, in its ordinary state, it produces no change; such, particularly, are antimony, silver, and gold. While these metals rob it of this excess of oxigene, they are by degrees burned, and dissolved in the muriatic acid, which returns itself into its original state. These oxidations and solutions of metals, by the oxygenated muriatic acid, are accomplished without effervescence, in the same manner as a salt is dissolved in water; for the metal takes up the superabundant oxigene of the liquid acid quietly, and with much more ease than if it were obliged to disengage it from a combustible base. Oxygenated muriatic acid likewise dissolves metallic oxides, and thereby forms oxygenated muriates, very different in their nature from simple muriates. The most striking and most remarkable of these differences appears in the combinations of the acid, in its different states, with oxide of mercury. With oxygenated muriatic acid, oxide of mercury forms *corrosive sublimate*. With simple muriatic acid, the same oxide forms *mild mercury*. The differences between these two salts are therefore owing to the differences between the two states of the acid in respect to the proportions of the oxigene.

X. *Ammoniac gas*, discovered by Dr Priestley, is disengaged by heat from liquid ammoniac, and, with still more rapidity, from a mixture of ammoniacal muriate, or
common

common fal ammoniac, with quicklime. This elastic fluid, when collected in glasses over mercury, is found to be a little heavier than atmospheric air. The degree of cold or pressure at which it loses its aeriform fluidity, is still undetermined. It combines with water, giving out, while the combination takes place, a good deal of heat : it melts ice : it renders syrup of violets, as well as blue and red flowers, green : it combines rapidly with carbonic, sulphureous, and muriatic acid gases ; these combinations produce a good deal of heat : as this heat is disengaged from the two elastic fluids, these become solid while the combinations are forming.

Ammoniac gas is speedily decomposed by the contact of oxygenated muriatic acid gas : the decomposition is accompanied by heat : a quantity of water, charged with muriatic acid, is formed, and there is a residue of azotic gas. This experiment, as well as several others which have been already mentioned, proves ammoniac to consist of hydrogene and azote. The decomposition of ammoniacal copper, and of *fulminating gold* and *silver*, which afford, by the action of fire, water, reduced metal, and azotic gas, is another proof that ammoniac consists of these principles ; for, the hydrogene of this alkali having a stronger affinity for oxigene than either gold or silver, detaches it from the oxides of these metals, and, leaving its azote to be disengaged into a gaseous state, forms water with the oxigene which it has acquired in this manner. The phenomena of this decomposition of ammoniac by oxides, are very much diversified—from that which oxide of copper effects slowly, and with the assistance of a strong heat,—to the amazing rapidity with which ammoniacal oxide of silver is reduced, when it detonates by the momentary contact of heat. The diversity

fity of these phænomena is owing to the various affinities of oxigene with the different metals.

Oxides of zinc and iron, which, in their metallic state, decompose water, have not the same power over ammoniac; for these metals have a greater affinity with oxigene, than oxigene has with hydrogene.

XI. *Pure hydrogenous gas*, universally known by the name of *inflammable air*, is the lightest of all aeriform fluids: When very pure, it is thirteen or fourteen times lighter than atmospheric air. It extinguishes burning bodies: it kills animals: it is kindled by the contact of the electric spark, or of any flaming combustible body: it burns with a bright flame. Fifteen parts of this gas absorb, in burning, eighty-five of vital air; and by that combustion, an hundred parts of very pure water are formed—if the elastic fluids be pure. The water is therefore a compound of these two bodies, deprived of most of the heat which is necessary to maintain them in the state of elastic fluidity. All substances having a stronger affinity with any one of these two principles, than that by which their union is maintained, decompose this fluid. Thus, iron, zinc, coal, and oils, decompose water, and separate hydrogene from it into a gaseous state; as they have a stronger affinity with the base of vital air or oxigene than it has with hydrogene. From this it is clear, that hydrogenous gas cannot be expected to decompose carbonic acid, or the oxides of zinc and iron: On the contrary, sulphur, and such metals as do not decompose water, give up the oxigene which they contain, in the state of sulphuric acid, and of metallic oxides, to hydrogenous gas; which reduces the former into the state of pure sulphur, and the latter into the state of metals. This decomposition of water by
iron

iron and zinc, is the cause from which proceeds the hydrogenous gas produced during the solution of these two metals by the sulphuric, the muriatic, the carbonic, or the acetous acid.

The leaves of vegetables, on the contrary, appear to possess the property of absorbing the hydrogen of water, and disengaging its oxygen into the state of pure air. Light contributes greatly to this decomposition; and without the contact of light it is never effected. It appears to serve for the purpose of melting oxygen, and thus forming it into vital air; and, while the oxygen is disengaged, the hydrogen becomes fixed in the vegetable, and serves, no doubt, for the production of oil. We know not yet exactly, with what substances, and in what proportion, hydrogen must combine to form oil. Hydrogen, or the base of hydrogenous gas, forms ammoniac, by combination with azote, or the base of azotic gas. M Berthollet, by analysing that salt, has shewn this to be its composition: But we have not yet been able to form ammoniac by the immediate combination of these two principles.

We have never yet been able to separate the matter of heat combined in hydrogenous gas, to which that gas owes its elastic fluidity, without fixing the hydrogen in some other compound; and therefore, we are still unacquainted with hydrogen in a solitary insulated state. The degree of pressure or cold necessary to effect this separation, must be such as we have not yet learned to apply: Every thing, indeed, concurs to shew, that either the one or the other must be in an extreme degree.

The sudden disengagement, and the rapid inflammation of hydrogenous gas, produce all the fulminations and detonations which are observed in chemistry. The
instantaneous

instantaneous recomposition of water is almost invariably the consequence of these detonations.

Hydrogenous gas performs an important part in the phænomena of nature. A great quantity of it is produced and disengaged in mines: It there reduces and colours various metallic oxides: it rises in the atmosphere, is carried about by the winds, and kindled by the electric spark: accordingly, it acts the part of thunder; and immediately upon its detonation, a quantity of water is formed, which streams down upon the earth.

The inflammation of this gas by the electric spark, is one of the most remarkable phænomena in nature, and one of those of which the origin is least known. We are equally at a loss to explain, how the electric spark comes to be capable of fixing a mixture of vital air and azotic gas into nitric acid.

XII. Sulphurated hydrogenous gas, or *hepatic gas*, has been very well distinguished from other hepatic gases by Bergman. It is obtained from solid alkaline sulphures, or *livers of sulphur*, by decomposing them with acids in a pneumatological apparatus. This aeriform fluid has a very foetid smell: it kills animals: it renders syrup of violets green: vital air precipitates sulphur from it: it is kindled by the electric spark, and by the contact of burning bodies: it burns with a reddish blue flame; and, as it burns, deposits sulphur on the sides of the vessels containing it: the ruddy nitrous acid, the sulphureous acid, and the oxygenated muriatic acid decompose it, destroy its elastic fluidity, and separate the sulphur. It combines with water, and the solution is decomposed by the action of air: sulphurated hydrogenous gas colours and reduces oxides of lead, bismuth, &c.; it precipitates solutions of metals. Some metals, particularly mercury and silver,

silver, separate the sulphur; accordingly, when passed through glasses containing mercury, a great part of it is decomposed.

All these phænomena agree in shewing, that this gas contains sulphur in a very attenuated state. M. Genembre, by an analysis, has discovered it to consist of hydrogenous gas and sulphur: to the solution or suspension of sulphur, it owes its distinguishing characteristics. The sulphur, however much attenuated, does not burn at the same time with the hydrogenous gas, but is in part deposited during the combustion of the gas: The cause of this phænomenon is, that hydrogenous gas does not need combustion of so high a temperature as sulphur.

It is sulphurated hydrogenous gas which mineralises sulphureous waters. On this account, the common acids never precipitate sulphur from those waters; but the nitrous acid, the sulphureous acid, and the oxygenated muriatic acid, in which the oxigene is not very intimately combined with the acidifiable base, separate the sulphur by absorbing the hydrogen. If too much of any of these acids be employed, especially of the oxygenated muriatic acid, the sulphur of this gas will be burned, and converted into sulphuric acid; and then no precipitate will appear.

Our acquaintance with sulphurated hydrogenous gas enables us to explain several things concerning sulphur, which we were before unable to account for: 1. We know now, why solid sulphures, recently prepared, are without smell; and what occasions their becoming so strongly foetid, when moistened: 2. It appears that water, though not decomposable by sulphur alone, is easily decomposed by the joint action of sulphur and alkaline matters: 3. We understand fully, how alkaline sulphures come to be decomposed by the air, and by several

veral metallic oxides, especially by the oxides of metals which do not decompose water: 4. The theory of sulphureous mineral waters is now easy to explain; as well as the history of their decomposition by air and metallic oxides; and the difficulties which were formerly found in all attempts to detect the sulphur by simple acids, while it was not suspected to exist in those waters in any other state but sulphure or *hepar*.

XIII. *Phosphorated hydrogenous gas* was discovered by M. Gengembre, who called it, at the first, *phosphoric gas*. He obtained it, by boiling a lixivium of caustic potash with half its weight of phosphorus, and receiving the elastic fluid that was disengaged, into glasses containing mercury. It kindles by the mere contact of air, producing, as it takes fire, a faint explosion. The solid phosphoric acid which it affords, forms, when burning, a sort of *corona* in the air, when not agitated; and, towards its extremity, the diameter of the flame does not diminish, but is enlarged. When mixed with vital air under glasses, it burns with the greatest rapidity, and produces such heat and dilatation that the glasses burst if they be not very thick, or if the proportions of the mixture be too large. M. Gengembre has shown, that this new gas is a solution of phosphorus and hydrogenous gas. It bears a considerable resemblance to sulphurated hydrogenous gas; and differs from it in nothing but the nature of the combustible body suspended in the hydrogenous gas. As phosphorus is much more combustible than sulphur, phosphoric hydrogenous gas kindles in the air: the phosphorus is first kindled, and communicates the inflammation to the hydrogenous gas, which is heated by its combustion. In sulphurated hydrogenous gas, on the contrary, the hydrogenous gas is kindled only by the contact

contact of some burning body; and the sulphur not being sufficiently heated, is separated unburnt.

XIV. *Hydrogenous gas*, mixed with azotic gas, forms that elastic fluid which M. Volta has denominated *inflammable air of marshes*. It is produced by the putrefaction of some vegetable matters, and of all animal substances. It is disengaged from waters in marshes, ponds, houses of office, and all places where there are animal matters putrefying in water. It either accompanies, precedes, or follows, the formation of ammoniac which takes place in putrefaction. I take it to be a simple mixture, of which the component parts are not united by combination; for, were they actually combined, the result would be ammoniac: but it differs from ammoniac, 1. In the elastic state of the two fluids of which it consists; 2. In the proportions of those elastic fluids, which vary in this mixed acid, but in ammoniac are always the same. We are indebted for our present accurate knowledge of this gas to M. Berthollet. In the years 1778 and 1779, I examined the inflammable gas of marshes, and discovered it to contain carbonic acid: but in several of those gases, found in different parts of the neighbourhood of Paris, I found a mixture, the nature of which I did not properly distinguish; although I asserted, as may be seen in the 164th page of the collection of my Memoirs in 8vo, that it is sometimes accompanied, or even has its place supplied, by *phlogisticated gas*, which, as I have elsewhere shewn, is the same with what we at present call azotic gas. These were merely vague assertions at the time when I inserted them in my Memoirs: but M. Berthollet has since communicated to them a degree of certainty and precision which induces

induces me to distinguish this gas by the peculiar names above given to it.

Hydrogenous gas, mixed with azotic gas, burns with a blue flame. It detonizes, but not easily, with vital air. When caused to detonize, in M. Volta's eudiometer, it is found to produce some drops of water, and a residue more or less pure.

XV. I distinguish, by the title of *hydrogenous gas* mixed with carbonic acid, that gas which is obtained by distillation from many vegetable matters, particularly from tartar, and all tartareous salts; from acetous salts; from hard wood; from charcoal burning with the help of water; from mineral coal, &c.

It does not burn very readily; but it is not absolutely incombustible, even though three fourths of its bulk be carbonic acid. This acid is separated from it, and the hydrogenous gas purified by lime-water and caustic alkalis. It is a simple mixture, without combination. Hydrogenous gas is not capable of decomposing carbonic acid; for coal decomposes water, having a stronger affinity than hydrogen with its oxigene.

XVI. *Lastly*, It is now known that coal, though very much fixed in close vessels, and in our common fires, is liable to be reduced to vapour, and dissolved into elastic fluids, in a very high temperature. Hydrogenous gas acts with more energy than any other substance in dissolving carbone, and maintaining it in suspension; it frequently therefore carries it with it, as it assumes an elastic fluid form. It is this mixed gas that is disengaged, when cast iron and steel are dissolved in sulphureous acid diluted in water. In consequence of the former having absorbed carbonaceous matter in the tops of the furnaces, and the latter

latter in its cementation, it even appears that coal may be directly dissolved in hydrogenous gas, by directing the rays of the sun from the focus of a mirror, through the middle of a glass filled with this gas, upon coal placed on mercury in the bottom of the glass. This fluid burns with a blue flame; and gives out, during its combustion, small white or reddish sparks. The existence of coal in solution in this gas, appears from its gravity, and from its combustion in vital air, which produces carbonic acid. It likewise appears, that coal communicates to hydrogenous gas its well-known foetid smell, or at least it renders that smell stronger. Lastly, coal modifies the effects of this gas, and changes the results of its combinations. Thus, a mixed gas, formed by the solution of coal in azotic gas, seems to be the colouring matter of Prussian blue. But we are not yet acquainted with all the compounds into which coal enters: and the same is to be said of the various mixtures of all the gases with one another, which certainly take place in a great many instances, but of which chemistry has not yet estimated the effects.

Of the Application of the Facts which have been collected, concerning the Nature and Properties of Elastic Fluids, to the great Chemical Phænomena produced by Nature and Art.

IT is now acknowledged as an unquestionable fact, that there is perhaps not a single phænomenon in chemistry in which some elastic fluid is not either disengaged or fixed; nay, sometimes both the disengagement and fixation of elastic fluids take place on the same occasion: and the discoveries of the moderns have proved, that the manner in which such phænomena were formerly ac-

counted for, neither explained the causes, nor gave a just view of the effects. The perspicuity which these discoveries have introduced into this part of the science, is a sufficient proof of their importance.

On comparing the numerous facts which constitute the present system of chemical knowledge, it appears that they may be reduced to a few general classes, containing them all under distinct heads. Such an arrangement is the more necessary, as it shows the connections and mutual relations of those facts; and must form, of consequence, the elements of the science of chemistry. But this, last object cannot be attained, till all the general phænomena be explained: and as we are still unable to account for a number of these, as I am about to show, this method of laying down the elements of chemistry is to be considered in no other light than as a proposal, the importance and utility of which render it worthy the attention of philosophers.

It is with a view to contribute in part to the carrying of this project into execution, or at least to show that it is not impossible, that I have attempted to reduce all the facts, and the whole theory of chemistry, under fourteen leading phænomena, comprehending the various changes which natural bodies are liable to suffer from the action of the chemical affinities. In order to proceed regularly from simple to compound, in explaining these phænomena, I arrange them in the following order:

1. The production or disengagement of heat, and its absorption, with the effects of both.
2. The influence of air on combustion.
3. The effects produced by light on bodies.
4. The decomposition and the recomposition of water.
5. The production and the decomposition of earths.
6. The formation and the decomposition of alkalis.
7. The

7. The formation and the decomposition of acids.
8. The combination of acids with earths and alkalis.
9. The oxidation and the reduction of metals.
10. The solution of metals by acids.
11. The formation of the immediate principles of vegetables by vegetation.
12. The several sorts of fermentation.
13. The formation of animal matters by the life of animals.
14. The decomposition and putrefaction of animal matters.

Let us briefly consider each of these phænomena, and explain their essential relation to the properties of elastic fluids.

I. *The production of heat* is owing either to the force of pressure, which disengages it in bodies in which it is contained,—or to combination, which disengages it in like manner. It is to be observed, that this phænomenon takes place more especially when an elastic fluid is fixed in any body; because, as we have already seen, the aeriform state of any substance supposes the presence of a good deal of combined heat. It is also to be observed, that as every different body contains a different quantity of heat, or, in other words, different bodies have different capacities of heat,—therefore pressure or combination must produce, from different bodies, very different quantities of this substance. For which reason, this phænomenon, which accompanies a great part of the operations of chemistry, should be observed and estimated with the utmost care, in experiments in which accuracy is intended. Similar to this, is the manner in which the apparent destruction or *absorption of heat* takes place, which is likewise very often observed in chemical processes. It always depends on the increase of the bulk of bodies,

and on their then acquiring a greater capacity for the reception of the matter of heat. Both of these phænomena, therefore, may be estimated mechanically, or merely by observing how the particles of bodies are compressed together, or removed from each other. But in order to form a more just idea of it, we must add to this mechanical cause, the consideration of the particular chemical attraction or affinity between heat and the body on which we are observing its operation.

II. Combustion is one of the most important phænomena in nature. We may distinguish two distinct classes of combustions,—those which take place in the air, and those which take place apparently without the contact of vital air, but on substances containing its base.

Combustions effected by the contact of air, are, as has been already said, combinations of the combustible body with the base of vital air or oxigene. In proportion as these combinations take place, the matter of light and caloric are separated from the oxigene, and appear in the sensible form of heat and light. There are some combustible bodies which disengage these fluids slowly from vital air, and afford only heat when they burn: others, again, disengage these principles rapidly, and cause them to appear in the form of sparkling light, and glowing heat. By communicating more or less oscillation to this light, they give it different shades of colouring; if, with Euler, we consider different coloured rays of light as being all the same matter, only actuated by different oscillations, similar to the vibrations of sound. In certain combustions effected by air, the combustible bodies have so great an affinity to the base of the elastic fluid, that they attract it with the utmost facility; others require, in order to their combination with oxigene, a temperature sometimes exceedingly high, which appears
to

to promote the attractive influence of the combustible body on that base. This theory accounts for the increase of the weight of a burnt body; the change of its state; the impurity of atmospheric air after combustion,—for the proportion of azotic gas then becomes much larger,—and the diversity of the phænomena, such as flame, heat, and rarefaction, which accompany every species of combustion which is effected in the atmosphere.

The second class of combustions is generally effected in close vessels. It consists in general in the transition of oxigene, either more or less solid, out of a body already burnt, into an unburnt body. It depends upon the different elective attractions of this principle for different combustible bases. To this class belong, the oxidation of metals by acids,—the reduction of metallic oxides by coal,—the combustion of sulphur, phosphorus, coal, and carbure of iron by nitric acid,—the combustion of hydrogene, the principle of ammoniac, by the oxygenated muriatic acid, &c. &c. In all these instances, oxigene passes out of one body into another; and as it was not melted by heat and light, these combustions generally take place without flame. We may observe, that in these instances of combustion, which may be called *tacit*, the property of combustibility is not lost, but only transferred from the body which absorbs the oxigene to that which loses it. We may likewise add, that as oxigene is more or less solid, that is, more or less destitute of heat and light in the compounds into which it enters, bodies which detach it may sometimes absorb it in a more pure and solid state than it was contained in those in which it before existed: and the disengagement of heat, and even of light, must then take place. Such is the origin of these two phænomena in detonations by

nitre,—in the apparent action of nitric acid on sulphur, coal, phosphorus, the generality of metals, oils, and alcohol.

III. *The effects of light on bodies*, have not been hitherto estimated any other way than by their consequences; their cause has never yet been properly explained. It has been long known to act upon vegetables, to communicate to them colour, and to develop their combustible principles. Scheele observed, that the rays of the sun coloured nitric acid, muriate of silver, mercurial precipitates, &c. It is at present well known, that all these effects are attended with the disengagement of a more or less considerable quantity of vital air: light, therefore, acts at the same time with heat upon these bodies,—separates their oxigene, melts it, and causes it to pass into the state of elastic fluidity. It is in this manner that it contributes to the decomposition of carbonic acid by the leaves of vegetables. That decomposition is, in truth, owing to a double attraction; 1. The attraction of light and heat for oxigene, which they tend to disengage into vital air, &c.; 2. That with which vegetable matters act upon carbone, the radical principle of this acid. By the same mechanism, light promotes the decomposition of water by the same organs of vegetables, and contributes to the formation of their oleaginous principle. By attending with more care than has been hitherto done, to the action of light upon many natural bodies, some important discoveries may be made, as I pointed out in the year 1780.

IV. *The formation and the decomposition of water*, depend entirely on the affinities of oxigene, which is one of its principles. Zinc, iron, oils, and coal, are already known

known to possess the property of separating the principles of water, by absorbing its oxigene, and disengaging its other principle, hydrogene, in the form of hydrogenous or inflammable gas. The extreme levity of this gas, accounts for the high temperature requisite to effect this decomposition suddenly. It appears, that the base of this gas, hydrogene, which is commonly either liquid or solid, in the two states in which water is commonly found on the surface of the globe, has a very great capacity for containing the matter of heat. It even appears, that this base, though combined with oxigene and water, still possesses this property of absorbing a great deal of heat; and that it is this property which renders aqueous vapour lighter than air; in consequence of which, the mercury sinks in the barometer, when the atmosphere is filled with that vapour. This noble discovery of the nature and the decomposition of water, throws much light on the theories of metallic solutions,—of the oxidation of various metals by moisture,—of the formation of the immediate principles of vegetables,—of spiritous fermentation, and of putrefaction: And we already see, that almost all chemical theories are referable to, and depend upon the affinities of oxigene. It throws also great light on the phenomena of the atmosphere,—the formation of meteors,—the laws which nature observes in the successive changes of organic matters, &c.

V. There are still several important *desiderata* with respect to the formation of bodies, which the labours of chemists have not explained. One of these is the *formation of earths*. Naturalists have given their opinions concerning the formation of earths: several of them have considered the conversion of flint into clay, as a fact sufficiently proved; but that notion is nothing but

an ingenious hypothesis, not supported by facts. Chemists have not been able to change either siliceous earth into alumina, or alumina into siliceous earth. Nature, perhaps, operates this conversion; but as we are unacquainted with the means which she employs, we should not venture to guess, when not countenanced by direct experiments. To consider barytes, magnesia, and lime, as compounds consisting of siliceous and aluminous earths united with some other bodies, is to advance hypotheses which deserve but very little credit. No chemist has hitherto directed his enquiries to this scope: the necessary *data* are even wanting.

VI. Nearly similar is the state of our knowledge with respect to the formation of fixed alkalis. The modern ideas of the principles of chemistry, lead us to suspect azote as a principle of these salts.—We may perhaps even venture to consider this body, the existence of which in ammoniac has been fully proved by M. Berthollet, as a principle common to fixed alkalis and alkaline earths in general,—in a word, as the *alkaligenous* principle. For instance, there can be no doubt, that the fixed alkalis are partly decomposed in many of the operations of Chemistry: in the distillation of old soaps, and tartareous and acetous neutral salts, they are plainly changed into ammoniac.—This transmutation seems to shew, that fixed alkalis contain azote, which, by attaching itself to the hydrogen of the oil, forms ammoniac.—But these facts have not yet been carefully examined, with respect to the quantities of the fixed alkalis which appear to be decomposed, and that of the ammoniac which is obtained,—nor, what is of no less importance, with respect to the residue produced from the fixed alkalis; and we cannot hope to establish our theory upon this fact, till its circumstances

cumstances be more exactly known. But though these were known, we should still have to enquire into the nature of the other principle or principles of fixed alkalis, and in what manner the radical principle of potash differs from that of soda, &c.

VII. *The formation and the decomposition of acids*, is one of the most valuable and best known parts of modern chemistry. We know that they consist all of a base or radical principle, more or less combustible in combination with oxigene: that the oxigene being the same in them all, is the principle of their acidity; and that the differences among them are owing to the substances combined with the oxigene; which differ in each different acid.—We know the bases of the sulphuric, the nitric, the carbonic, the arsenic, and the phosphoric acids; we know them to be sulphur, azote, coal, arsenic, and phosphorus. But the acidifiable bases of the muriatic, the fluoric, and the boracic acids in the mineral kingdom, remain still to be discovered; as well as the proportions in which hydrogen and carbone, which seem to form the bases of all the vegetable acids, are united in them.

The decomposition of the acids whose nature is known, is not hard to explain. We know that it must happen, whenever a combustible body, having a stronger affinity with oxigene than oxigene has with the acidifiable base, is applied to any acid: And such is the theory of sulphureous and nitrous acid gases by the decomposition of the sulphuric and nitric acids, &c.

VIII. *The combination of acids with earths and alkalis*, forms the history of neutral salts, and of the mutual affinities or elective attractions of those different matters.

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It comprehends the examination of the phænomena which take place when they unite,—the taste which they acquire,—their form, solution, crystallization, alterations by fire and air, and mutual decompositions. It has been treated of at great length in this work.

IX. The oxidation and reduction of metals is also referable to the history of air and oxigene. We know, that what has been called the *calcination* of metals, is a combustion,—that it consists in the union and fixation of the base of vital air or oxigene in the metal calcined;—that metallic *calces* are compounds of metals and oxigene, which we call *oxides*;—that most oxides are reduced only by giving out their oxigene to some other body having a stronger affinity with it;—that coal, by absorbing oxigene from metallic oxides in this manner, forms with it the carbonic acid, which is disengaged in such abundance during their reduction;—and that there are some metallic oxides, from which oxigene is separated in the state of vital air, by means of heat and light,—a fact which proves, that this oxigene is combined with different metals, with very different degrees of adhesive force. But two very important particulars in the history of the oxidation of metals, which have been ascertained by modern experiments, and which throw great light on all the phænomena of metallic matters, are, 1. That every different metal absorbs, in order to its saturation, a different quantity of oxigene: 2. That each metal may exist in different states of oxidation,—or, combined with different proportions of oxigene,—from that which merely begins the oxidation of a metal to that by which it is completely accomplished,—for instance, from fifteen to forty, or more parts of oxigene, to the hundred weight of iron,

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The attentive examination of this second fact, leads us to distinguish, in every metallic oxide, several different states in respect to the quantity of oxigene which it contains. Thus, mercury suffers an incipient oxidation, and is changed into a black powder in a number of circumstances, which have been hitherto considered as effecting only an extreme attenuation of the metal: Thus, iron, in the state of martial ethiops, is the first oxide of that metal, in respect of the small quantity of oxigene which it contains, and cold water easily reduces the metal into this state: Lastly, copper, beginning to be oxidated, or combined with the smallest possible quantity of oxigene, is brown and reddish; whereas an oxide of this metal, fully saturated with oxigene, is of a bright green.

This distinction of metallic oxides, according to their different states of oxidation, or according as they contain different quantities of oxigene, and possess different properties, in consequence of their having been more or less burnt, enables us to explain a great many phenomena, of which chemists were formerly able to give no satisfactory account.

X. *The solution of metals* in different acids, the properties of these solutions, and of the salts which they afford, agree very well with the modern theory, and are much better explained by it than they formerly were. No solution of a metal in an acid can take place, without the metal's being first oxidated.

Metals are oxidated by the sulphuric acid,—either by the acid itself, or by the water in which it is diluted. In the first of these cases, the acid is decomposed, and a quantity of sulphureous acid gas disengaged; in the second, the water is decomposed, and hydrogenous gas disengaged.

engaged. Some metals decompose only the sulphuric acid, without acting upon the water; such as mercury, lead, &c.; and to burn these metals, the acid must be concentrated. Metals which act with more energy in decomposing water than in decomposing sulphuric acid, such as zinc and iron, are not so readily oxidated unless the acid be diluted, as it is from the water they must derive the necessary oxygen. What proves the certainty of this last fact, is, that the sulphuric acid remains undiminished, none of it being decomposed. From these circumstances it is clear, that much more sulphuric acid must be necessary for the solution of a metal which decomposes the acid, than for the solution of a metal which decomposes the water combined with it. In the former case, two different sums of the acid are requisite, one to oxidate the metal, and another to dissolve the metallic oxide: if only the first sum were mixed with the metal, it would only be oxidated, and the second sum of acid would still be necessary to dissolve the oxide: in the laboratories, there is frequently occasion to make such an addition. Accurate observation has shown, that metallic oxides ought to be always in the same degree of oxidation or combination with oxygen, in order that they may be dissolved in the sulphuric acid; and that when they are fully saturated with the acid, they no longer combine with it. Before this period, they are not soluble in it; beyond it, they are precipitated,—an event which happens when a sulphuric solution is exposed to too strong a heat, or left for a longer or shorter time exposed to the air. In the first, of these operations, the heat promotes the action of the metallic oxide upon the acid; and it of consequence takes up more oxygen than it contained or needed in order to remain suspended in the acid; in the second instance, it absorbs that principle

ciple from the atmosphere, till, acquiring more than is necessary to its suspension, the oxide is precipitated. Such is the theory of sulphuric mother waters. Solutions of metals by this acid afford crystals only in the former case. All these facts agree in shewing, that the metals act first upon their solvents; and that the sulphuric acid does not act upon them till they be oxidated to a certain degree.

Nitric acid is likewise decomposed by most metals. They are oxidated or *calcined* to a certain degree by absorbing its oxigene, with which they have a greater affinity than azote. But they not taking up all the oxigene of the nitric acid,—not, at least, unless too much of the metal be employed, and the mixture be too much heated,—the azote is separated in combination with a portion of oxigene; and this particular combination constitutes nitrous gas. The nitric acid is more liable to decomposition than any other acid; its two component principles not being very intimately united. For this reason, it has always been considered as the chief solvent; and it is owing to the same circumstance, that water is seldom decomposed during the mutual action of metals and the nitric acid, and that a large quantity of water puts a stop to this re-action. Accordingly, solutions of metals in the nitric acid afford only one sort of elastic fluid, nitrous gas, which is sometimes mixed with a little azotic gas, especially if the metals employed have a very strong affinity with oxigene, and absorb a great deal of it.

Metals which are soluble in the nitric acid combine, and remain in combination with it, only when containing a certain quantity of oxigene not equal to their saturation. Many metallic oxides, therefore, such as those of bismuth, antimony, mercury, tin, and iron, are very easily separated from nitric acid, solely by rest, by heat,

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or by exposure to the air. As they continue to absorb oxigene from the acid in which they are dissolved, or from the surrounding atmosphere, the quantity of nitric acid must also be very large; that it may be sufficient, first, to oxidate the metal,—secondly, to dissolve the oxide. If you employ only what is requisite for the former purpose, you obtain only a dry oxide; as in the instances of bismuth, zinc, tin, and antimony.

The muriatic acid does not act upon any metal without the assistance of water. Wherefore, as there are but few metals which act upon water, there are but few directly soluble in muriatic acid; and nothing but hydrogenous gas is ever disengaged, in the case of solution, by this acid. Every thing concurs to shew, that the principles of this acid adhere more obstinately together than those of any other acid; and from this I am much inclined to think, that the unknown base of the muriatic acid, whatever it be, is the body which has the greatest possible affinity with oxigene. None of the combustible bodies which detach that principle from the other substances that contain it, takes it from this acid: but when metallic oxides are once formed, it dissolves them very readily; it even detaches them from several other acids; and it dissolves them even when fully saturated with oxigene, which the other acids are not capable to do. The two last of these properties, which are very remarkable, certainly depend on the tendency which the muriatic acid has to absorb an excess of oxigene; a tendency so fully proved by the formation of the oxygenated muriatic acid, &c.

The action of the other acids on metals is not yet sufficiently known, to enable us to explain it so accurately. We shall only remark, that metals cannot decompose the carbonic acid; for coal, the radical principle of that acid,

acid, has a stronger affinity with oxygen than oxygen has with metals; as is proved by the decomposition of metallic oxides by the carbonaceous principle.

Lastly, The precipitation of metallic oxides from acids, by other metallic substances, depends entirely on the diversity of the affinities of oxygen with these substances. When copper precipitates oxide of silver, and iron oxide of copper, in silver and copper; the reason of these phenomena is, that copper has a stronger affinity with oxygen than silver, and iron than copper.

XI. We are only beginning to understand the formation of the immediate principles of vegetables. It was long ago observed, that plants grew very well in pure water; and that all their constituent principles were formed with water and atmospheric air: From these two sources they derive all their nourishment: From these, their extract, mucilage, oil, coal, acids, colouring parts, &c., are produced. Since the discovery of the different gases, it has been observed, that they grow very rapidly in air altered and mixed with carbonic acid, as well as in hydrogenous gas. We have already taken notice, that leaves decompose water and carbonic acid. From the former, they absorb hydrogen; and from the second, carbone; disengaging, from both, vital air. They appear, likewise, to absorb azote. These well-known phenomena explain the formation of coal and of oil: for there can be no doubt, that the latter of these principles consists of fixed hydrogen, if the expression may be used, as it affords a good deal of water during its combustion. But we are still ignorant of the manner in which the colouring principle, the aroma, the fixed alkali, and the glutinous part, are formed; and whence the varieties of the oils, &c.; only we may venture to foretel,

foretel, that new experiments on vegetation, in prosecution of these new views, will hereafter explain the nature and the composition of all these different immediate principles.

We are now beginning to understand the formation of vegetable acids, during vegetation, and even by that act. In the history of acids, we have already taken notice, that they appear to be all formed of similar bases : that, by a last analysis, we obtain equally from them all, carbone, hydrogene, and oxigene ; and that they seem to differ only in the proportions of the principles, and in the pressure or density of the substances. The more we extend our experiments upon acids, the more probable will this opinion appear.

Scheele and M. Crell have found an analogy to exist among several of them. Scheele, who at first thought the oxalic acid and the acid of sugar to be different from each other, was at length convinced, as we have mentioned elsewhere, that there is no difference between these acids, but that they are precisely the same ;—1. By extracting the portion of potash which conceals the properties of the oxalic acid in common salt of sorrel, and, by that means, reducing it to pure oxalic acid ; 2. By changing acid of sugar into salt of sorrel, by the addition of a little potash.

If to this most important fact in the analysis of vegetables, we add the valuable experiments of M. Crell, who has extracted tartareous acid from alcohol, and has changed tartareous acid into vinegar, and into oxalic acid, and oxalic acid, again, into acetous acid,—we shall see, that the oxalic, the tartareous, and the acetous acids, greatly resemble each other : that they are formed from one base, and differ only in the proportions of the oxigene which they contain. It appears that the tartareous

reous acid contains least of this principle: that the oxalic acid contains a good deal more of it; and that the acetous acid contains still more than either of the other two. I cannot help thinking, that if four vegetable acids, which were at first thought to be essentially different from each other, have been already found to consist of the same base, combined with different proportions of oxigene; future experiments may in like manner discover the same analogy to subsist among others, particularly between the citric and the malic acids, which are so often found together in vegetable juices.

XII. Spiritous fermentation,—the simultaneous formation of the carbonic acid and alcohol,—the necessity of water and a saccharine principle to begin that fermentation,—all together afford us reason to think, that it is produced by the decomposition of water. The oxigene of the water combining with the coal, forms carbonic acid, which is disengaged; and the alcohol is formed by the fixation of the hydrogene in the oily base, which, with different quantities of oxigene, forms the tartareous, the oxalic, and the acetous acids. This theory explains fully the reason why alcohol affords so much water in combustion,—why it is changed by mineral acids into oxalic acid, acetous acid, &c. It is true, we do not yet well understand how it passes into the state of æther; only it is probable, that in such operations, the alcohol loses a portion of its oxigene, which goes to the formation of water.

XIII. Chemists are beginning to conjecture, how far the science can conduct them in their enquiries into the formation of animal matters. Digestion seems to be simply an extraction or solution by the gastric juice. The fixation of azotic gas is one of the principal functions of organization.

ganization. From the experiments of Scheele, and, still more, from those of M. Berthollet, it appears to occasion the principal difference between animal matters and vegetable substances. It contributes to the formation of the ammoniac which these substances afford in such abundance by distillation, &c. We know not yet in what manner azotic gas is fixed in animals, whether by the stomach or by the skin, &c. The differences among the animal fluids designed for the nourishment of the different organs, and the peculiar nature of the gelatinous humour, of the albuminous liquor, and of the fibrous part, which is melted and dissolved in certain fluids, are now sufficiently ascertained. We know that the former is the least animalised,—that the second is more so,—and that the third is the last substance produced by the action of the vital functions upon the fluids: We know, also, that this last humour is reunited simply by rest into a tissue of solid fibres; and that the albuminous part is thickened, and rendered concrete by heat; whereas the gelatinous substance is sooner decomposed, but also more readily reproduced. Peculiar acids have been found in the excrementitious humours, but we know nothing of their formation: we are particularly ignorant of the manner in which the phosphoric acid, which abounds so generally through this kingdom, is formed.

The nature of the solids of animals has engaged the attention of modern chemists. The distinctive nature of the fibrous texture of the muscles,—of the membranous plates,—of the hard laminæ of the bones, &c., is now known. Medicine expects, from the discoveries of chemistry, a solution of the problems which still subsist concerning the formation of the several matters which constitute these parts; especially of the phosphoric acid,
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the albuminous juice, the fibrous matter, calcareous phosphate, and the peculiar oils which are found in this kingdom of nature. The formation of ammoniac, which was guessed at by Bergman and Scheele, and has been since fully explained by M. Berthollet, affords us reason for thinking, that all these problems may be successively solved. In all probability, we want only a few principal facts, to enable us to reach several important results: The hope of this must encourage those physicians who know the importance of chemistry.

XIV. Ever since the days of Chancellor Bacon, the history of putrefaction has been acknowledged as an important object in medical enquiries. Several eminent naturalists have studied it with some success: But the cause of this decomposition, and the manner in which it is effected, have not been yet discovered. The late discoveries throw some light on this important point. Water, which promotes and excites putrefaction, is understood to be decomposed in that intestine motion. We understand how ammoniac is formed in such abundance,—by the fixation of azotic gas and hydrogenous gas. The slow decomposition of grease, its preservation and condensation, which in some instances proceeds to solidity and hardness in consequence of the fixation of vital air from water, are now accounted for: In like manner have been explained, the volatilization and reduction of dead animal substances exposed to the air, into elastic fluids; in a word, the complete separation of all those principles, and their dispersion in the atmosphere, which conveys them into new combinations; with that whole series of compositions, and transitions of substances out of one kingdom into another,—so happily expressed by Beccher under the philosophical emblem, *circulus eterni motus*, which he uses to signify the indefatigable activity of nature.

EXPLANATION

OF THE

TABLE OF THE NOMENCLATURE.

WE shall begin with observing, that it was not our intention to exhibit, in this Table, the whole of the chemical nomenclature : Our design was only to arrange together, under several classes of compounds, such a number of select examples as might enable any person, with a little study, to apply the principles of our system of nomenclature to all the compounds with which chemists are at present acquainted, as well as to those which may be hereafter discovered. For this purpose, we have divided the table into six perpendicular columns, with the general titles at their heads, expressing the state of the bodies whose names they contain. Each of these columns consists of 55 divisions, —that being the number of the undecomposed substances with which we are acquainted, and which succeed in order in the first column. The correspondent horizontal divisions of the other five columns, comprehend the principal combinations of those simple substances, and must of consequence be equally numerous.

We shall trace each of these columns through its principal divisions.

C O L U M N

C O L U M N I.

The title of the first column is, SUBSTANCES THAT HAVE NOT YET BEEN DECOMPOSED. The reason why we consider these bodies as simple, is, that we have not yet been able to analyse them. All the accurate experiments which have been performed during these last ten years, concur to shew, that these bodies can neither be separated into more simple substances, nor reproduced by artificial combinations. These substances are, as we have already mentioned, 55 in number. They, with their corresponding compounds are numbered with Arabic numerals, running down both the right and the left sides of the table.

The 55 simple substances of the first column are divided into five classes, according to the differences of their nature. The first of these classes consists of four bodies, which appear to come nearly under the character that has been assigned to the elements, and act the most important part in combinations. These are, 1. *Light*; 2. *Caloric*, which has hitherto been named matter of heat: 3. *Oxigene*, or that part of vital air which becomes fixed in burning bodies, increases their weight, and changes their nature, and of which the most eminent property being to constitute acids, has induced us to give it a name alluding to that remarkable characteristic: 4. *Hydrogene*, or the base of the elastic fluid which is called Inflammable Gas, and which, as it is one of the principles of water, exists in ice in a solid state. These first four principal bodies are connected by a brace.

The second class of the undecomposed substances in the first column, consists of 26 different bodies,—all of which are liable to become acid, by combining with

oxigene; and in consequence of their possessing this characteristic in common, we distinguish them by the name of *acidifiable bases*. There are only four of these 26 bodies that can be obtained in a simple uncombined state. These four are, *azote*,—the *radical principle* of the nitric acid *, or the solid base of atmospheric mephitis, well known at present to chemists, in the fifth division; *pure coal*, *carbonic*, or the *radical principle* of the carbonic acid, in the sixth division; *sulphur*, or the *radical principle* of the sulphuric acid, in the seventh division; and *phosphore*, or the *radical principle* of the phosphoric acid, in the eighth division. The other 22 are only known as they exist in combination with oxigene, and in the state of acids. But in order to extend and simplify the Science, we have supposed them separated from oxigene, and existing in that pure state to which it is probable they may one day or other be reduced by art. They are all, therefore, inserted in the first column, as existing in this supposed simple state, and distinguished as the radical principles of the acids into which they enter.

The third class of the undecomposed substances of the first column, consists of metallic matters, in number 17, extending from the 31st to the 47th division, *inclusivè*. They all retain the names by which they have been hitherto known. The three first are liable to pass into an acid state,—agreeing, in this characteristic, with the preceding acidifiable bases.

In the fourth class, are the earths which have not yet been decomposed,—*siliceous earth*, *aluminous earth*,
barotes,

* It is also to be observed, that azote is never obtained in a separate insulated state, but always in a gaseous state, and in combination with caloric.

barotes, *lime*, and *magnesia*, in so many successive divisions. None of these five earths has yet been decomposed ; and they are therefore to be considered, in the present state of our knowledge, as so many simple bodies.

Lastly, the fifth class of undecomposed substances, consists of the three alkalis,—*potash*, *soda*, and *ammoniac*. The last of these substances has been decomposed by Messrs Bergman and Scheele ; and M. Berthollet has determined, in a precise manner, the nature and the quantity of its principles : But we were unwilling to separate it from the fixed alkalis, the component principles of which we hope also to discover in a short time : It would be improper to break through the order, and overlook the mutual relations of those substances, which in many respects act, in chemical experiments, as undecomposable matters.

The first column, all the divisions of which we have now explained, is, like each of the others, divided longitudinally into two ; the left side exhibits the old names of the substances in *Italic* characters.

C O L U M N II.

The second column is intituled, **THE SAME SUBSTANCES REDUCED INTO THE STATE OF GAS, BY THE ADDITION OF CALORIC.** It exhibits the permanent aeriform states into which a number of the simple substances in the first column are liable to pass. In this column, there are only four elastic fluids, the names of which, like all the words in the other columns, are derived from the names of the undecomposable matters, and are rendered sufficiently intelligible, by the addition of the word *gas* to the correspondent words in the first

column:—*Oxygenous gas, hydrogenous gas, azotic gas, and ammoniacal gas.*

C O L U M N III.

The title of the third column informs the reader, that it consists of THE SAME SUBSTANCES which appear in the first column, COMBINED WITH OXIGENE. This is one of the fullest columns in the Table; for, almost all the bodies in the first column are capable of combination with oxigene. The names in it are all compounded of two words, expressive of the two matters of which the substances to which they belong consist. The first of these words, is the generic term of the acid, which indicates the saline character that it derives from oxigene: The second peculiarises each acid, and refers to its peculiar radical principle. The 5th division of this third column exhibits the combination of *azote, or nitric radical*, with oxigene. From that combination arise three compounds, produced by a diversity in the proportions of the principles: The azote is either united with the least possible quantity of oxigene, and it then forms the *base of nitrous gas*;—or saturated with it, and then it constitutes *nitric acid*;—or united with less than in nitric acid, yet with more than in nitrous gas, and then it forms *nitrous acid*. We express the three different states of this combination simply by varying the termination of the same word. In the same manner, the termination of the *sulphuric acid* is varied in the 7th division; that of the *phosphoric acid*, in the 8th division; and that of the *acetic acid*, in the 13th. These acids exist in two states of combination with oxigene, according to the quantities which their acidifiable bases contain. When the bases are completely

completely saturated, the acids produced are, the *sulphuric*, the *acetic*, and the *phosphoric*: When the bases are not saturated, and do not contain oxigene in a due proportion, we call the acids that are then formed, the *sulphureous*, the *acetous*, and the *phosphorous*. We have followed the same general rule in the denomination of all the other acids. When an acid is known only in one state, and, in that state, the base is fully saturated with oxigene, such as the carbonic or the boracic acid, its name then terminates in *ic*: when it is known in two states, it is distinguished, in the stronger state, by the termination *ic*; in the weaker, or that in which there is an excess of the acidifiable base, its name terminates in *ous*. Accordingly, in those acids which are known only in one state, and yet have their names terminating in *ous*, it may be understood that there is an excess of the acidifiable base: such are, the *tartareous* acid, in the 14th division; the *pyro-tartareous*, in the 15th; the *pyro-ligneous*, in the 21st; and the *pyro-mucous*, in the 22d. The *muriatic* acid, in the 9th division, is in a state different from any of the others. Besides its combination, in which it is saturated with oxigene, it is also capable of receiving an excess of oxigene, which communicates to it some remarkable properties. To distinguish it as it exists in this last state, we call it the *oxigenated muriatic acid*; and the epithet *oxigenated*, may be in like manner applied to any of the other acids that shall be found existing in the same state. The lower divisions of this third column, from the 31st to the 47th *inclusivè*, exhibit the nomenclature of another system of bodies. The word *oxide* is there found at the beginning of the compound denomination. The reason which induced us to substitute this name to that of metallic calces, has been explained in our memoir on this nomenclature. It does

not

not express a saline quality, as the word *acid* does, and yet denotes a combination of oxigene : and it may be applied to all bodies that are susceptible of a combination with oxigene without passing into a state of acidity ; and this, whether their not becoming acid be owing to the scanty proportion of the oxigene, or to the nature of their bases. Thus, for instance, the phosphoric acid, vitrified, or deprived of a part of its oxigene, by the action of a strong heat, becomes a sort of *phosphoric oxide*. Nitrous gas, too, which is not more acid than phosphoric glass, is properly a *nitrous oxide* ; and hydrogen, in combination with oxigene, forms not an acid, but water, which, in this light, may be considered as an *oxide of hydrogen*.

Of the 17 metallic oxides, between the 31st and the 18th division, there are 3 which are only in intermediate states between the metallic and the acid. It is for want of oxigene that the oxides of arsenic, molybdena, and tungsten, in the 31st, the 32d, and the 33d divisions, are not yet become acid. A greater quantity of the acidifying principle constitutes them the *arsenic*, the *molybdic*, and the *tungstic* acids. Epithets taken from colour serve to distinguish the different oxides of the same metal, as may be observed of the oxides of antimony, lead, and mercury.

C O L U M N I V.

The 4th column, intituled, THE SAME SUBSTANCES IN A GAZEOUS OXIGENATED STATE, contains simple substances combined both with oxigene and with a sufficient quantity of caloric to reduce them to permanent gases, under the usual pressure and temperature of the atmosphere. There are only six substances known to exist in that state,—*nitrous gas*, *nitrous acid gas*, *carbonic acid gas*, *sulphureous gas*, *muriatic* and *oxigenated muriatic*

muriatic acid gas, and fluoric acid gas.—No other oxygenated substance having been reduced into a gaseous state by caloric, we have therefore introduced into this column some peculiar combinations of metallic oxides, or oxygenated metals, with different bases: It is accordingly divided in the middle; and the lower part intituled, METALLIC OXIDES WITH DIFFERENT BASES.—From the 31st to the 45th division *inclusive*, are the combinations of metallic oxides with sulphur and alkalis. The former are called *sulphurated oxides* of arsenic, lead, &c.; the latter, *alkaline metallic oxides*. When any of these compounds varies in the proportions, and consequently in its properties, we distinguish it in the same manner as the simple oxides, by epithets taken from colour: thus we say, *grey, red, orange, &c. sulphurated oxides of antimony*.

C O L U M N V.

The 5th column, consisting of the simple SUBSTANCES in the 1st column OXIGENATED AND NEUTRALISED BY THE ADDITION OF BASES, or, neutral salts in general, exhibits many more names than any of the preceding columns: and we have therefore found it necessary to give, in this column, a greater number of examples, in order to show the superiority of this system of nomenclature over the ancient names; most of which, though expressing similar combinations, were in nowise analogical.

Any person may see, by looking slightly over this column, that the names contained in it, and expressing similar combinations, have all one termination. It is easy to see, that this must greatly facilitate the study of the science, and contribute greatly to the perspicuity of
works

works in chemistry in which this mode of denomination shall be adopted. The bodies belonging to this column are compounds of three substances,—acidifiable bases, the acidifying principle, or oxigene, and terrene, metallic, or alkaline bases. But we use only two words to express their nature; for, the first of these being derived from the name of the oxigenous or acid combination, serves to denote that part of the body; the other refers solely to the base with which the acid is saturated. The names of all these compounds terminate in *ate*, when they contain acids completely saturated with oxigene: but when the acids are not completely saturated with that principle, the name of the neutral salt then terminates in *ite*. We have given more instances of neutral salts formed from those acids which are best known and most used, than of the salts formed with the acids which are less common *.

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* The neutral salts are now exceedingly numerous. There are 29 acids known, which, as each of them may be saturated by 4 soluble earths, 3 alkalis, and 14 metallic oxides which are not acidifiable (for it appears, that the acidifiable oxides, such as those of arsenic, molybdena, and tungsten, do not neutralise the mineral acids), form 609 species of compound salts. Add to this, that 3 of these acids, the nitric, the sulphuric, the muriatic, the acetic, and the phosphoric, combine with neutralisable bases in both of their different states; and that a number of acids, such as the sulphureous, the tartareous, the oxalic, and the arsenic, admit of saturation with different quantities of the base, in consequence of which they form what are called *acidula*, of which there are already 8 different species very well known *. With this addition, the number of the neutral salts will amount to 722 species, the names of which may be methodically formed, from the 46 or 48 examples given in this table.

* Such are, *acidulous sulphate of potash*, or vitriolated tartar with an excess of the acid; *tartarites*, or *acidulous oxalates of potash, soda, and ammoniac*, or creams of tartar, and salts of sorrel, artificially prepared with the pure tartareous and oxalic acids combined with a small quantity of the alkaline bases; and the *acidulous arseniate of potash*, or arsenical neutral salt of Macquer.

The names of 18 genera of neutral salts in this table terminate in *ate*. This termination of their name shews, that the acid to which they owe their formation is known only in the state of the complete saturation of the acidifiable base with oxigene: and accordingly, the names of all the acids to which these neutral salts belong, terminate in *ic*, by the rules of our nomenclature, as appears in the 3d column.

The 14th, 15th, 21st, and 22d divisions, exhibit names of neutral salts, terminating in *ite*. The termination of these salts is meant to indicate, that in the acids from which they are formed, there is an excess of the acidifiable base.

There are other divisions in this column, exhibiting both the terminations *ate* and *ite*: thus, in the 5th column, *nitrate* and *nitrite*; in the 7th, *sulphate*, and *sulphite*; in the 8th, *phosphate* and *phosphite*; in the 13th, *acetate* and *acetite*. These terminations shew, that the salts to which they belong owe their formation to acids existing in two different states. *Nitrates*, for instance, are formed by the *nitric* acid, in which the acidifiable base is fully saturated with oxigene; and *nitrites* again are formed by the *nitrous* acid, in which the base is not completely saturated with the acidifying principle.

In some others of these divisions, there are neutral salts different from any of the above. Thus, in the 9th division, we have *oxygenated muriate of potash*, the combination of the oxygenated muriatic acid of potash, a salt very different from simple muriate of potash, and which M. Berthollet has discovered to possess the property of detonizing on burning coals. In other divisions in this same column, we have expressed saline combinations in which the acids predominate, by adding to the
systematic

systematic name of these salts, the epithet *acidulous*: Thus, the 14th division contains *acidulous tartarite of potash*; and the 16th, *acidulous oxalate of potash*. Lastly, by the expression *supersaturated*, we distinguish those neutral salts in which the base predominates, as may be seen in the 8th division, in which is, *supersaturated phosphate of soda*; and in the 10th, in which we have borax, or *supersaturated borate of soda*.

By reflecting on the strict etymological method which we have observed in affixing these denominations to neutral salts; and considering, that, in the old nomenclature, there appears scarce any analogy between the names of salts of a similar nature; the Reader will perceive the reason of the changes which appear in this column, which are more numerous than those which any of the others exhibits; though there is actually nothing new in it, but the variation of two terminations of names which were before in use.

C O L U M N VI.

The sixth and last column of this table, which comprehends simple substances combined in their natural state, and neither oxygenated nor acidified,—as the title shews, is one of the shortest, and contains but few compounds. The lower divisions, from the 31st to the 38th, contain compounds consisting of different metals, which we suffer to retain the names of *alloys* and *amalgams*, by which they have been hitherto known. Above the 31st division, there are only three which exhibit a new nomenclature, founded on the same principles with the foregoing. The sixth contains *carbure of iron*;—a denomination by which we have distinguished the natural combination of coal and iron, called *plumbago*.
The

The 7th division exhibits metallic sulphures, or natural combinations of sulphur with alkalis,—and sulphurated hydrogenous gas, or the solution of sulphur with hydrogenous gas. Lastly, in the 8th division, we express, by the generic name of *metallic phosphures*, natural compounds of phosphorus with metals: Thus, to the name *syderite*, we substitute the expression *phosphure of iron*, which plainly signifies the combination of phosphorus with iron: and these three words, *carbure*, *sulphure*, and *phosphure*, differing only in the termination from names which are very well known, convey an accurate idea of similar combinations, and distinguish them from all other compounds.

Under these six columns, we have placed a nomenclature of the principal compound bodies that are found in vegetables. In this part of the table, we have merely selected from among the old names, those whose simplicity and plainness render them suitable to our purposes.

Such is the method which we have followed in forming the system of names exhibited in this table. Those who make themselves masters of this table, which may very easily be done, will readily perceive, that we have formed but very few new words, excepting such as were indispensably necessary to denominate substances before unknown, such as the newly-discovered acids. By tracing the order of the substances in the first column, from which all the rest are derived, any person will see, that we use no new words but *oxigene*, *hydrogene*, and *azote*. As to the words *caloric*, *carbone*, *silice*, *ammoniac*, both these and all their derivations are formed by a very slight change from names before well known and much used. It is plain, therefore, that our new nomenclature differs from the old, in nothing but new terminations; and

and that, if these changes render the study easier, and the language of the science more intelligible,—above all, if they enable us to express ourselves with unequivocal precision,—as the trial of this nomenclature that has been made in the years 1777 and 1778, in the course of Lectures on Chemistry delivered in the King's Garden and the Lyceum, affords us reason to hope;—the reformation which we wish to introduce on so simple a method, cannot but be highly favourable to the progress of Chemistry.

A D V E R -

ADVERTISEMENT

CONCERNING THE

TWO TABLES OF SYNONYMOUS NAMES.

TO our general table of the systematic Nomenclature, exhibiting the whole of our system, we have thought proper to add a list of synonymes, containing all the words necessary in denominating chemical preparations. This list of synonymes is given in the form of two vocabularies. In the first of these, are the old names, disposed in alphabetical order; and, opposite to them, the correspondent, new, or newly adopted names. This vocabulary not only shews the names which we have given to the different chemical compounds, but persons not very well acquainted with the preparations in general, the old names of which do not at all explain their nature, will find, in the new synonymous words, a sort of definition of the substances to which they are affixed, sufficiently plain and distinct, to enable them to understand their natures.

In the second vocabulary, the order of the new and the old names is directly contrary to that of the first; and we hope it will be found no less useful.

In it, the new names appear in alphabetical order; and, opposite to them, are exhibited the corresponding old names. In this, our object was, to give a complete list of synonymous terms, in order that students might not, in this science, be under the same difficulties as in

some others, particularly in Mineralogy and Botany, in which the vast variety of different names given to the same thing, has produced a degree of confusion and obscurity, which the labours of some of the most indefatigable of men have not been sufficient to remove.

In this new vocabulary, we shew that the same substance has frequently received eight, ten, or twelve different names; that most of these names bear no relation to the things to which they are affixed;—which indeed could not but happen in a science in which the first writers sought to conceal every thing under a veil of mystery; and in the history of which we cannot trace the several periods at which those who have cultivated it, have attained an accurate knowledge of different compounds. But, to avoid tediousness and obscurity, we have taken care not to exhibit here, the names anciently given to different substances by the alchemists, which, as they were founded on absurd or chimerical ideas, have happily been forgotten since chemistry has begun to make equal progress with Natural Philosophy.

Each of these tables of synonymes, therefore, has its use. The first may be used as a dictionary in reading books on chemistry, that have been published before this period, as it gives the new name corresponding to every old name which can occur in such works. In this, as well as in the following, we have given only the names of simpler compound bodies, and of chemical preparations. The names of the operations we have not given, as we have made no change upon them. The second list of synonymes contains more words than the first; for, in it, there are a good many compounds, the knowledge of which we owe to late experiments, and which, till within these few years, had no names. It may therefore be considered as being in some degree an inventory

inventory of the chemical knowledge which we at present possess.

In both these lists, there are some synonymous words among the new names. We retain them, because some of them are very generally used, and because some choice of expressions with different terminations is necessary to give variety to discourse, and to prevent a disgusting monotony. Thus, for instance, the word expressive of the base of neutral salts, may be either a substantive or an adjective, at the pleasure of the writer. In books on chemistry, there may be some words found that do not appear in our vocabularies; but the nature of the compounds to which these have been applied, is not yet well known; and those who consider to what strict laws we have here subjected ourselves, will readily be sensible, that it would have been impossible for us to give names to combinations but imperfectly known.

We have added some definitions to several general or particular names, either when we have been doubtful of the nature of the compounds to which they belong, or in speaking of bodies but lately discovered. The second table, which exhibits the new names in alphabetical order, with the corresponding old names, gives at the same time a Latin translation of the new names: In making out this translation, we have still adhered to the same rules. Uniformity of termination, and the laws of derivation, are the two principles by which we have been uniformly directed. Our Nomenclature would have been imperfect, if we had neglected to offer to philosophers of all nations an uniform mode of expressing themselves, which might make them generally understood. As the science improves, such new names as shall become necessary may be added upon the same plan.

E R R A T A.

V O L. I.

P. 9. L. 14.		For <i>called</i> , read <i>able</i> .
49.	12. from the top.	For <i>fulphureous</i> , read <i>fulphuric</i> .
59.	8. from the top.	For <i>desert</i> , read <i>detach</i> .
107.	12. from the bottom.	For <i>calonic</i> , read <i>caloric</i> .
244.	12. from the bottom.	For <i>fulphur</i> , read <i>fulphure</i> .
306.	11. from the bottom.	For <i>acid</i> , read <i>caustic</i> .
314.	1. of the note.	For <i>acids</i> , read <i>alkalis</i> .
319.	6. from the bottom.	Dele <i>the</i> .
355.	11. from the top.	For <i>solid</i> , read <i>elastic fluid</i> .
448.	6.&9. from the bottom.	For <i>soda</i> , read <i>potash</i> .

V O L. II.

581.	6. from the bottom.	For <i>bitumen</i> , read <i>bitumens</i> .
639.	9. from the top.	For <i>acidulae</i> , read <i>acidula</i> .
639.	11. —————	For <i>acidula</i> , read <i>acidulum</i> .

V O L. III.

15.	7. from the bottom.	For <i>Sicilly</i> , read <i>Sicily</i> .
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For *alumines*, wherever it occurs, read *alumina*.

COMPARATIVE VIEW
OF
ANCIENT AND MODERN NAMES
OF
CHEMICAL SUBSTANCES,
IN ALPHABETICAL ORDER.

OLD NAMES.

NEW OR ADOPTED NAMES.

A

<i>ACETATED Ammoniac.</i>	{ Acetite, ammoniacal. Acetite of ammoniac.
<i>Acetated lime.</i>	{ Acetite, calcareous. Acetite of lime.
<i>Acetated clay.</i>	{ Acetite, aluminous. Acetite of aluminous earth.
<i>Acetated copper.</i>	Acetite of copper.
<i>Acetated magnesia.</i>	{ Acetite, magnesian. Acetite of magnesia.
<i>Acetated lead.</i>	Acetite of lead.
<i>Acetated soda.</i>	Acetite of soda.
<i>Acetated potash.</i>	Acetite of potash.
<i>Acetated zinc.</i>	Acetite of zinc.
<i>Acetated iron.</i>	Acetite of iron.
<i>Acetated mercury.</i>	{ Acetite of mercury. Acetite, mercurial.

OLD NAMES.	A	NEW NAMES.
<i>Acid, acetous.</i>	Acid,	acetous.
<i>Acid, aerial.</i>	Acid,	carbonic.
<i>Acid, arsenical.</i>	Acid,	arsenic.
<i>Acid of benzoïn.</i>	Acid,	benzoic.
<i>Acid of borax.</i>	Acid,	boracic.
<i>Acid, carbonaceous.</i>	Acid,	carbonic.
<i>Acid of citrons.</i>	Acid,	citric.
<i>Acid, cretaceous.</i>	Acid,	carbonic.
<i>Acid of ants.</i>	Acid,	formic.
<i>Acid of apples.</i>	Acid,	malic.
<i>Acid, benzoic.</i>	Acid,	benzoic.
<i>Acid of salt.</i>	Acid,	muriatic.
<i>Acid of sulphur.</i>	Acid,	sulphuric.
<i>Acid of amber.</i>	Acid,	fuccinic.
<i>Acid of sugar.</i>	Acid,	oxalic.
<i>Acid of tallow.</i>	Acid,	sebacic.
<i>Acid of vinegar.</i>	Acid,	acetous.
<i>Acid of Wolfram, according to Messrs. D'Elbuyar.</i>	}	Acid, tungstic.
<i>Acid, fluoric.</i>		Acid, fluoric.
<i>Acid, formicine.</i>		Acid, formic.
<i>Acid, galactic.</i>		Acid, lactic.
<i>Acid, gallic.</i>		Acid, gallic.
<i>Acid, lignic.</i>		Acid, pyro-ligneous.
<i>Acid, lithiatic.</i>		Acid, lithic.
<i>Acid, malusian.</i>		Acid, malic.
<i>Acid, marine.</i>		Acid, muriatic.
<i>Acid, dephlogisticated marine.</i>		Acid, oxygenated muriatic.
<i>Acid, mephitic.</i>		Acid, carbonic.
<i>Acid, molybdic.</i>		Acid, molybdic.
<i>Acid, white nitrous.</i>		Acid, nitric.
<i>Acid, nitrous, without gas.</i>		Acid, nitric.
<i>Acid, dephlogisticated nitrous.</i>		Acid, nitric.
<i>Acid, phlogisticated nitrous.</i>		Acid, nitrous.
<i>Acid, oxaline.</i>		Acid, oxalic.
<i>Acidum perlatum.</i>		Superfaturated phosphate of soda.
<i>Acid, dephlogisticated phosphoric.</i>		Acid, phosphoric.

OLD NAMES.	A	NEW NAMES.
<i>Acid, phlogisticated phosphoric.</i>	Acid;	phosphorous.
<i>Acid, saccharine.</i>	Acid,	oxalic.
<i>Acid, sacchalaetic.</i>	Acid,	saccho-lactic.
<i>Acid, sebaceous.</i>	Acid,	sebatic.
<i>Acid, sedative.</i>	Acid,	boracic.
<i>Acid, sparry.</i>	Acid,	fluoric.
<i>Acid, sulphureous.</i>	Acid,	sulphureous.
<i>Acid, syrupous.</i>	Acid,	pyro-mucous.
<i>Acid, tartareous.</i>	Acid,	tartareous.
<i>Acid, tungstic.</i>	Acid,	tungstic.
<i>Acid, vitriolic.</i>	Acid,	sulphuric.
<i>Acid, phlogisticated vitriolic.</i>	Acid,	sulphureous.
<i>Acidum pingue.</i>	Imaginary principle of Meyer.	
<i>Affinities.</i>	Chemical affinities or attractions.	
<i>Aggregation.</i>	Aggregation.	
<i>Aggregates.</i>	Aggregates.	
<i>Air, vitriolic acid.</i>	Sulphureous acid gas.	
<i>Air, alkaline.</i>	Ammoniacal gas.	
<i>Air, dephlogisticated.</i>	Oxygenous gas, or vital air.	
<i>Air, atmospheric.</i>	Atmospheric air.	
<i>Air of fire, Scheele's.</i>	Oxygenous gas.	
<i>Air, factitious.</i>	Carbonic acid gas.	
<i>Air, fixed.</i>	Carbonic acid gas.	
<i>Air, impure.</i>	Azotic gas.	
<i>Air, inflammable.</i>	Hydrogenous gas.	
<i>Air of sulphur, stinking.</i>	Sulphurated hydrogenous gas.	
<i>Air, putrid.</i>		
<i>Air of Hales, solid.</i>	Carbonic acid gas.	
<i>Air, vitiated.</i>	Azotic gas.	
<i>Air, vital.</i>	Oxygenous gas.	
<i>Alkalest.</i>	{ Universal solvent, the existence of which was supposed by the Alchemists.	
<i>Alkalest of Respour.</i>	Potash mixed with oxide of zinc.	
<i>Alkalest of Van Helmont.</i>	Carbonate of potash.	
<i>Alkalis, in general.</i>	Alkalis.	
<i>Alkali of tartar, fixed, not caustic.</i>	Carbonate of potash.	

Ancient and Modern Names

OLD NAMES.	A	NEW NAMES.
<i>Alkalis, caustic.</i>	Alkalis.	
<i>Alkalis, effervescent.</i>	Alkaline carbonates.	
<i>Alkali of tartar, fixed, caustic.</i>	Potash.	
<i>Alkali, vegetable fixed.</i>	Carbonate of potash.	
<i>Alkali, caustic marine.</i>	Soda.	
<i>Alkali, marine, not caustic.</i>	Carbonate of soda.	
<i>Alkali, aerated mineral.</i>	Carbonate of soda.	
<i>Alkali, caustic mineral.</i>	Soda.	
<i>Alkali, effervescent mineral.</i>	Carbonate of soda.	
<i>Alkali, phlogisticated.</i>	{ Ferruginous prussiate of potash, not saturated.	
<i>Alkali, Prussian.</i>	Ferruginous prussiate of potash.	
<i>Alkali, aerated vegetable.</i>	Carbonate of potash.	
<i>Alkali, caustic vegetable.</i>	Potash.	
<i>Alkali, caustic volatile.</i>	Ammoniac.	
<i>Alkali, concrete volatile.</i>	Ammoniacal carbonate.	
<i>Alkali, effervescent volatile.</i>	Ammoniacal carbonate.	
<i>Alkali, fluor volatile.</i>	Ammoniac.	
<i>Alkali, urinous.</i>	Ammoniac.	
<i>Alloy of Metals.</i>	Alloy.	
<i>Alum.</i>	{ Sulphate of alumines. { Aluminous sulphate.	
<i>Alum, marine.</i>	{ Muriate of alumines. { Aluminous muriate.	
<i>Alum, nitrous.</i>	{ Nitrate of alumines. { Aluminous nitrate.	
<i>Amalgam of silver.</i>	Amalgam of silver.	
<i>Amalgam of bismuth.</i>	Amalgam of bismuth.	
<i>Amalgam of copper.</i>	Amalgam of copper.	
<i>Amalgam of tin.</i>	Amalgam of tin.	
<i>Amalgam of gold.</i>	Amalgam of gold.	
<i>Amalgam of lead.</i>	Amalgam of lead.	
<i>Amalgam of zinc.</i>	Amalgam of zinc.	
<i>Amber, yellow.</i>	Amber.	
<i>Ammoniac, arsenical.</i>	{ Ammoniacal arseniate. { Arseniate of ammoniac.	
<i>Ammoniac, cretaceous.</i>	{ Ammoniacal carbonate. { Carbonate of ammoniac.	

OLD NAMES.	A	NEW NAMES.
<i>Ammoniac, nitrous.</i>	{	Ammoniacal nitrate. Nitrate of ammoniac.
<i>Ammoniac, phosphoric.</i>	{	Ammoniacal phosphate. Phosphate of ammoniac.
<i>Ammoniac, sparry.</i>	{	Ammoniacal fluuate. Fluuate of ammoniac.
<i>Ammoniac, tartareous.</i>	{	Ammoniacal tartarite. Tartarite of ammoniac.
<i>Ammoniac, vitriolic.</i>	{	Ammoniacal sulphate. Sulphate of ammoniac.
<i>Antimony, ore of.</i>		Native sulphure of antimony.
<i>Antimony, crude.</i>		Sulphure of antimony.
<i>Antimony, diaphoretic.</i>		White oxide of antimony by nitre.
<i>Aqua stygia.</i>	{	Nitro-muriatic acid by ammoniacal muriate.
<i>Aquila alba.</i>	{	Mild sublimated mercurial muriate.
<i>Arcanum duplicatum.</i>		Sulphate of potash.
<i>Arsenic, regulus of.</i>		Arsenic.
<i>Arsenic, white calx of.</i>		Oxide of arsenic.
<i>Arsenic, red.</i>		Red sulphurated oxide of arsenic.
<i>Arseniate of potash.</i>		Arseniate of potash.
<i>Attractions, elective.</i>		Elective attractions.
<i>Azure of cobalt, or of four fires.</i>	{	Vitreous oxide of cobalt with siliceous earth.

B

<i>Barotes.</i>	Barytes.
<i>Barotes, effervescent.</i>	Carbonate of barytes.
<i>Base of vital air.</i>	Oxygen.
<i>Base of marine salt.</i>	Soda.
<i>Balsams of Bucquet.</i>	Balsams.
See the new Nomenclature.	
<i>Balsam of sulphur.</i>	Sulphure of volatile oil.
<i>Benzoin.</i>	Benzoin.
<i>Benzenes.</i>	Benzoates.

Ancient and Modern Names

OLD NAMES.	B	NEW NAMES.
<i>Butter of antimony.</i>		Sublimated muriate of antimony.
<i>Butter of arsenic.</i>		Sublimated muriate of arsenic.
<i>Butter of bismuth.</i>		Sublimated muriate of bismuth.
<i>Butter of tin.</i>		Sublimated muriate of tin.
<i>Baume's solid butter of tin.</i>		Concrete muriate of tin.
<i>Butter of zinc.</i>		Sublimated muriate of zinc.
<i>Bezoar mineral.</i>		Oxide of antimony.
<i>Bismuth.</i>		Bismuth.
<i>Bitumens.</i>		Bitumens.
<i>Blende, or false galena.</i>		Sulphure of zinc.
<i>Blue, Berlin.</i>		Prussiate of iron.
<i>Blue, Prussian.</i>		Prussiate of iron.
<i>Borax, ammoniacal.</i>		Ammoniacal borate.
<i>Borax, argillaceous.</i>	{	Aluminous borate.
	{	Borate of aluminos.
<i>Borax, crude.</i>	{	Borax of soda, or borate super-
	{	saturated with soda.
<i>Borax, calcareous.</i>	{	Calcareous borate.
	{	Borate of lime.
<i>Borax of antimony.</i>		Borate of antimony.
<i>Borax of cobalt.</i>		Borate of cobalt.
<i>Borax of copper.</i>		Borate of copper.
<i>Borax of zinc.</i>		Borate of zinc.
<i>Borax, magnesian.</i>	{	Magnesian borate.
	{	Borate of magnesia.
<i>Borax, martial.</i>		Borate of iron.
<i>Borax, mercurial.</i>		Borate of mercury.
<i>Borax, ponderous or barotic.</i>	{	Barytic borate.
	{	Borate of barytes.
<i>Borax, vegetable.</i>		Borate of potash.
<i>Brass, bronze.</i>	{	Alloy of copper and tin, brass
	{	or bronze.

C

<i>Cameleon, mineral.</i>		Oxide of manganese and potash.
<i>Camphor.</i>		Camphor.

of Chemical Substances.

OLD NAMES.	C	NEW NAMES.
Camphorites, (<i>salts.</i>)		Camphorates.
Causilicium.		Imaginary principle of Meyer.
Ceruse.		{ White oxide of lead by acctous acid, <i>mixed with chalk.</i>
Ceruse of antimony.		{ White oxide of antimony by precipitation.
Coal, pure.		Carbone.
Calx of antimony, vitrified.		Vitreous oxide of antimony.
Calces, metallic.		Metallic oxides.
Cinnabar.		Red sulphurated oxide of mercury.
Citrates, (<i>salts.</i>)		Citrates.
Cobalt, or cobolt.		Cobalt.
Colcothar.		Red oxide of iron by sulphuric acid.
Copperas, white.		Sulphate of zinc.
Copperas, green.		Sulphate of iron.
Copperas, blue.		Sulphate of copper.
Chalk, ammoniacal.		Ammoniacal carbonate.
Chalk, barotic.		Barytic carbonate.
Chalk of lead.		Carbonate of lead.
Chalk of soda.		Carbonate of soda.
Chalk of zinc.		Carbonate of zinc.
Chalk, magnesian.		{ Magnesian carbonate.
Chalk, martial.		{ Carbonate of magnesia.
Chalk, or calcareous spar.		Carbonate of iron.
Clay.		{ Calcareous carbonate.
Clay, pure.		{ Carbonate of lime.
Clay, cretaceous.		{ Argilla, mixture of aluminæ and filices.
Clay, sparry.		Aluminæ.
Cream of lime.		{ Aluminous carbonate.
Cream or crystals of tartar.		{ Carbonate of aluminæ.
Crystal mineral.		{ Aluminous fluatè.
Crystals of soda.		{ Fluatè of aluminæ.
		Calcareous carbonate.
		Acidulous tartarite of potash.
		{ Nitrite of potash, mixed with sulphate of potash.
		Crystallized nitrate of silver.

Ancient and Modern Names

OLD NAMES.

C

NEW NAMES.

Crystals of the moon.

Crystals of Venus.

Crocus metallorum.

Copper.

Copper, yellow.

Crystallized carbonate of soda.

Crystallized acetite of copper.

{ Semi-vitreous sulphurate oxide
of antimony.

Copper.

{ Alloy of copper and zinc, or
latten.

D

Diamond.

Diamond.

E

Emetic.

Empyreal air.

Essences.

Ether, acetous.

Ether, marine.

Ether, nitrous.

Ether, vitriolic.

Ethiops, martial.

Ethiops, mineral.

Ethiops per se.

Extract.

Antimonial tartarite of potash.

Oxygenous gas.

Volatile oils.

Acetic æther.

Muriatic æther.

Nitric æther.

Sulphuric æther.

Black oxide of iron.

{ Black sulphurated oxide of mer-
cury.

Blackish mercurial oxide.

Extractive principle.

F

Feculum of plants.

Flowers, ammoniacal of copper.

Flowers, martial ammoniacal.

*Flowers, silver of regulus of
antimony.*

Feculum.

{ Sublimated ammoniacal muriate
of copper.

{ Sublimated ammoniacal muriate
of iron.

{ Sublimated oxide of antimony.

of Chemical Substances.

9

OLD NAMES.

F

NEW NAMES.

<i>Flowers of arsenic.</i>	Sublimated oxide of arsenic.
<i>Flowers of benzoin.</i>	Sublimated benzoic acid.
<i>Flowers of bismuth.</i>	Sublimated oxide of bismuth.
<i>Flowers of tin.</i>	Sublimated oxide of tin.
<i>Flowers, metallic.</i>	Sublimated metallic oxides.
<i>Flowers of sulphur.</i>	Sublimated sulphur.
<i>Flowers of zinc.</i>	Sublimated oxide of zinc.
<i>Fluids, aeriform.</i>	Gases.
<i>Fluids, elastic.</i>	Gases.
<i>Fluor, ammoniacal.</i>	{ Ammoniacal fluatc.
	{ Fluatc of ammoniac,
<i>Fluor, argillaceous.</i>	{ Aluminous fluatc.
	{ Fluatc of alumincs.
<i>Fluor of potash.</i>	Fluatc of potash.
<i>Fluor of soda.</i>	Fluatc of soda.
<i>Fluor, magnesian.</i>	{ Magnesian fluatc.
	{ Fluatc of magnesia,
<i>Fluor, heavy.</i>	{ Barytic fluatc.
	{ Fluatc of barytes,
<i>Formiates, (salts.)</i>	Formiates.

G

<i>Galactes, (salts.)</i>	Lactates.
<i>Gas, acetous acid.</i>	Acetous acid gas.
<i>Gas, cretaceous acid.</i>	Carbonic acid gas.
<i>Gas, marine acid.</i>	Muriatic acid gas.
<i>Gas, aerated muriatic acid.</i>	Oxygenated muriatic acid gas.
<i>Gas, nitrous acid.</i>	Nitrous acid gas.
<i>Gas, sparry acid.</i>	Fluoric acid gas.
<i>Gas, sulphureous acid.</i>	Sulphureous acid gas.
<i>Gas, alkaline.</i>	Ammoniacal gas.
<i>Gas, hepatic.</i>	Sulphurated hydrogenous gas.
<i>Gas, inflammable.</i>	Hydrogenous gas.
<i>Gas, carbonaceous inflammable.</i>	Carbonated hydrogenous gas.
<i>Gas, inflammable, of marshes.</i>	{ Hydrogenous gas of marshes, (a mixture of carbonated hydrogenous gas with azotic gas.)

OLD NAMES.	G	NEW NAMES.
<i>Gas, mephitic.</i>		Carbonic acid gas.
<i>Gas, phlogificated.</i>		Azotic gas.
<i>Gas, nitrous.</i>		Nitrous gas.
<i>Gas, phosphoric, of M. Gengembre.</i>		Phosphorated hydrogenous gas.
<i>Gas, Prussian.</i>		Prussic acid gas.
<i>Gazeous waters.</i>		{ Waters impregnated with carbonic acid.
<i>Gilla vitrioli.</i>		Sulphate of zinc.
<i>Gluten of wheat.</i>		Gluten, or glutinous principle.
<i>Gold.</i>		Gold.
<i>Gold, fulminating.</i>		Ammoniacal oxide of gold.

H

<i>Hepars.</i>	Sulphures,
<i>Heat, latent.</i>	Caloric.

I

<i>Ink, sympathetic, by cobalt.</i>	Muriate of cobalt.
<i>Iron, or mars.</i>	Iron.
<i>Iron, aerated.</i>	Carbonate of iron.
<i>Iron of water.</i>	Phosphate of iron.
<i>Jupiter.</i>	Tin.

K

<i>Kermes, mineral.</i>	{ Red sulphurated oxide of anti-
	mony.

L

<i>Latten.</i>	Alloy of copper and zinc, or latten.
<i>Lapis causticus.</i>	Concrete potash or soda.
<i>Limestone.</i>	Carbonate of lime.
<i>Lixivium of soapmakers.</i>	Solution of soda.
<i>Lignites, (salts.)</i>	Pyro-lignites.

OLD NAMES.

L

NEW NAMES.

<i>Lilium of Paracelsus.</i>	Alcohol of potash.
<i>Liquor of flints.</i>	Siliceous potash in liquor.
<i>Liquor, Boyle's fuming.</i>	{ Ammoniacal sulphure.
	{ Sulphure of ammoniac.
<i>Liquor, fuming, of Libavius.</i>	Fuming muriate of tin.
<i>Litharge.</i>	{ Semi-vitreous oxide of lead, or
	{ litharge.
<i>Liquor saturated with the colouring part of Prussian blue.</i>	{ Prussiate of potash.
<i>Light.</i>	Light.
<i>Luna.</i>	Silver.
<i>Luna, corneous.</i>	Muriate of silver.
<i>Liver of antimony.</i>	Sulphurated oxide of antimony.
<i>Liver of arsenic.</i>	Arsenical oxide of potash.
<i>Liver, volatile alkaline of sulphur.</i>	{ Ammoniacal sulphure.
	{ Sulphure of ammoniac.
<i>Liver, antimoniated, of sulphur.</i>	Antimoniated alkaline sulphure.
<i>Liver, barotic, of sulphur.</i>	{ Barytic sulphure.
	{ Sulphure of barytes.
<i>Liver, calcareous, of sulphur.</i>	{ Calcareous sulphure.
	{ Sulphure of lime.
<i>Liver, magnesian, of sulphur.</i>	{ Sulphure of magnesia.
	{ Magnesian sulphure.
<i>Livers of sulphur.</i>	Alkaline sulphures.
<i>Livers of sulphur, earthy.</i>	Earthy sulphures.
<i>Lead, or saturn.</i>	Lead.
<i>Lead, corneous.</i>	Muriate of lead.
<i>Lead, spathose.</i>	Carbonate of lead.

M

<i>Magistery of bismuth.</i>	Oxide of bismuth by nitric acid.
<i>Magistery of sulphur.</i>	Precipitated sulphur.
<i>Magistery of lead.</i>	Precipitated oxide of lead.
<i>Magnesia, white.</i>	Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Magnesia of Bergman, aerated.</i>	Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Magnesia, caustic.</i>	Magnesia.

OLD NAMES.	M	NEW NAMES.
<i>Magnesia, cretaceous.</i>		Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Magnesia, effervescent.</i>		Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Magnesia, fluorated.</i>		Fluate of magnesia.
<i>Magnesia, black.</i>		Black oxide of manganese.
<i>Magnesia, sparry.</i>		Fluate of magnesia.
<i>Malufites, (salts.)</i>		Malites of potash, soda, &c.
<i>Mafficot.</i>		Yellow oxide of lead.
<i>Matter of heat.</i>		Caloric.
<i>Matter of fire.</i>	{	<i>This word has been used to signify</i> light, caloric, and phlogiston.
<i>Materia perlata of Kerkringius.</i>	{	White oxide of antimony by precipitation.
<i>Mephite, ammoniacal.</i>	{	Ammoniacal carbonate. Carbonate of ammoniac.
<i>Mephite, barotic.</i>	{	Barytic carbonate. Carbonate of barytes.
<i>Mephite, calcareous.</i>	{	Calcareous carbonate. Carbonate of lime.
<i>Milk of lime.</i>		Lime diluted in water.
<i>Mephite of magnesia.</i>	{	Magnesian carbonate. Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Mephite of lead.</i>		Carbonate of lead.
<i>Mephite of zinc.</i>		Carbonate of zinc.
<i>Mephite, martial.</i>		Carbonate of iron.
<i>Matter, colouring, of Prussian blue.</i>		Prussic acid.
<i>Mercury.</i>		Mercury.
<i>Mercury of metals.</i>		Imaginary principle of Beccher.
<i>Mercury, mild.</i>		Mild mercurial muriate.
<i>Mercury, white precipitated.</i>	{	Mercurial muriate by precipita- tion.
<i>Minium.</i>		Red oxide of lead, or minium.
<i>Mofetes, atmospheric.</i>		Azotic gas.
<i>Molybdes, (salts.)</i>		Molybdates.
<i>Molybde, ammoniacal.</i>	{	Ammoniacal molybdate. Molybdate of ammoniac.
<i>Molybde, barotic.</i>	{	Barytic molybdate. Molybdate of barytes.
<i>Molybde of potash.</i>		Molybdate of potash.

OLD NAMES.

M

NEW NAMES.

<i>Molybde of soda.</i>	Molybdate of soda.
<i>Molybdena.</i>	Molybdena.
<i>Muciloge.</i>	Mucilage.
<i>Muriates, (salts.)</i>	Muriates.
<i>Muriate of antimony.</i>	Muriate of antimony.
<i>Muriate of silver.</i>	Muriate of silver.
<i>Muriate of bismuth.</i>	Muriate of bismuth.
<i>Muriate of cobalt.</i>	Muriate of cobalt.
<i>Muriate of copper.</i>	Muriate of copper.
<i>Muriate of tin.</i>	Muriate of tin.
<i>Muriate of iron.</i>	Muriate of iron.
<i>Muriate of manganese.</i>	Muriate of manganese.
<i>Muriate of lead.</i>	Muriate of lead.
<i>Muriate of zinc.</i>	Muriate of zinc.
<i>Muriate or regaline salt of platina.</i>	Nitro-muriate of platina.
<i>Muriate or regaline salt of gold.</i>	Muriate of gold.
<i>Muriate, corrosive mercurial.</i>	Corrosive mercurial muriate.

N

<i>Natrum, or natron.</i>	Carbonate of soda.
<i>Nitre.</i>	Nitrate of potash, or nitre.
<i>Nitre, ammoniacal.</i>	Ammoniacal nitrate.
<i>Nitre, argillaceous.</i>	Nitrate of alumines.
<i>Nitre, calcareous.</i>	{ Calcareous nitrate.
	{ Nitrate of lime.
<i>Nitre, cubic.</i>	Nitrate of soda.
<i>Nitre of silver.</i>	Nitrate of silver.
<i>Nitre of arsenic.</i>	Nitrate of arsenic.
<i>Nitre of bismuth.</i>	Nitrate of bismuth.
<i>Nitre of cobalt.</i>	Nitrate of cobalt.
<i>Nitre of copper.</i>	Nitrate of copper.
<i>Nitre of tin.</i>	Nitrate of tin.
<i>Nitre of iron.</i>	Nitrate of iron.
<i>Nitre of magnesia.</i>	{ Magnesian nitrate.
	{ Nitrate of magnesia.

OLD NAMES.	N	NEW NAMES.
<i>Nitre of manganese.</i>		Nitrate of manganese.
<i>Nitre of nickel.</i>		Nitrate of nickel.
<i>Nitre of lead.</i>		Nitrate of lead.
<i>Nitre of terra ponderosa.</i>	{	Barytic nitrate.
		Nitrate of barytes.
<i>Nitre of zinc.</i>		Nitrate of zinc.
<i>Nitre, fixed, by itself.</i>		Carbonate of potash.
<i>Nitre, lunar.</i>		Nitrate of silver.
<i>Nitre, mercurial.</i>		Nitrate of mercury.
<i>Nitre, prismatic.</i>		Nitrate of potash.
<i>Nitre, quadrangular.</i>		Nitrate of soda.
<i>Nitre, rhomboidal.</i>		Nitrate of soda.
<i>Nitre, saturnine.</i>		Nitrate of lead.
O		
<i>Ochre.</i>		Yellow iron ochre.
<i>Oils, animal.</i>		Volatile animal oils.
<i>Oil of lime.</i>		Calcareous muriate.
<i>Oil of tartar per deliquium.</i>	{	Potash, mixed with carbonate
		of potash, in a deliquescent
		state.
<i>Oil, philosopher's.</i>		Empyreumatic fixed oils.
<i>Oil of vitriol.</i>		Sulphuric acid.
<i>Oil of wine, sweet.</i>		Ethereal oil.
<i>Oils, empyreumatic.</i>		Empyreumatic oils.
<i>Oils, ethereal.</i>		Volatile oils.
<i>Oils, fat.</i>		Fixed oils.
<i>Oils, essential.</i>		Volatile oils.
<i>Oils by expression.</i>		Fixed oils.
<i>Ore of antimony.</i>		Native sulphure of antimony.
<i>Ore of iron, from marshes.</i>	{	Iron ore, holding in solution
		phosphate of iron.
<i>Orpiment.</i>	{	Yellow sulphurated oxide of
		arsenic.
<i>Oxygene.</i>		Oxygene.

OLD NAMES.

NEW NAMES.

P

<i>Phlogiston.</i>	Imaginary principle of Stahl.
<i>Philosophic wool.</i>	Sublimated oxide of zinc.
<i>Phosphate, ammoniacal.</i>	{ Ammoniacal phosphate. Phosphate of ammoniac.
<i>Phosphate, barotic.</i>	{ Barytic phosphate. Phosphate of barytes.
<i>Phosphate, calcareous.</i>	{ Calcareous phosphate. Phosphate of lime.
<i>Phosphate of magnesia.</i>	{ Magnesian phosphate. Phosphate of magnesia.
<i>Phosphate of potash.</i>	Phosphate of potash.
<i>Phosphate of soda.</i>	Phosphate of soda.
<i>Phosphorus of Baudouin.</i>	Dry calcareous nitrate.
<i>Phosphorus of Kunckel.</i>	Phosphorus.
<i>Phosphorus of Homberg.</i>	Dry calcareous muriate.
<i>Ponderous stone.</i>	Calcareous tunstite.
<i>Platina.</i>	Platina.
<i>Plaster.</i>	{ Calcareous sulphate, or calcined plaster.
<i>Plumbago.</i>	Carbure of iron.
<i>Pompholyx.</i>	Sublimated oxide of zinc.
<i>Potashes of commerce.</i>	Impure carbonate of potash.
<i>Putty of tin.</i>	Grey oxide of tin.
<i>Powder of Algaroth.</i>	{ Oxide of antimony by muriatic acid.
<i>Powder of Count Palma.</i>	{ Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Powder of Sentinelly.</i>	
<i>Precipitate, white, by muriatic acid.</i>	{ Mercurial muriate by precipi- tation.
<i>Precipitate of gold by tin, or purple of Cassius.</i>	{ Oxide of gold precipitated by tin.
<i>Precipitate, yellow.</i>	{ Yellow oxide of mercury by sulphuric acid.
<i>Precipitate per se.</i>	Red oxide of mercury by fire.
<i>Precipitate, red.</i>	{ Red oxide of mercury by nitric acid.

OLD NAMES.	P	NEW NAMES.
<i>Principle, acidifying.</i>		Oxygene.
<i>Principle, astringent.</i>		Gallic acid.
<i>Principle, carbonaceous.</i>		Carbone.
<i>Principle, inflammable.</i> (See phlogiston.)		
<i>Principle, mercurial.</i>		Imaginary principle of Beccher.
<i>Principium forbile of M. Ludbock.</i>		Oxygene.
<i>Prussite, calcareous.</i>		{ Calcareous prussiate.
		{ Prussiate of lime.
<i>Prussite of potash.</i>		Prussiate of potash.
<i>Prussite of soda.</i>		Prussiate of soda.
<i>Pyrites of copper.</i>		Sulphure of copper.
<i>Pyrites, martial.</i>		Sulphure of iron.
<i>Pyrophorus of Homberg.</i>		{ Carbonated fulphure of aluminous.
		{ Pyrophorus of Homberg.

R

<i>Realgar, or realgal.</i>		Red sulphurated oxide of arsenic.
<i>Regaltes, (salts formed with aqua regia.)</i>		{ Nitro-muriates.
<i>Regia, aqua.</i>		Nitro-muriatic acid.
<i>Regulus.</i>		{ A word used to denote the pure metallic, in opposition to ores, and oxides.
<i>Regulus of antimony.</i>		Antimony.
<i>Regulus of arsenic.</i>		Arsenic.
<i>Regulus of cobalt.</i>		Cobalt.
<i>Regulus of manganese.</i>		Manganese.
<i>Regulus of molybdena.</i>		Molybdena.
<i>Regulus of syderite.</i>		Phosphure of iron.
<i>Resins.</i>		Resins.
<i>Rust of copper.</i>		Green oxide of copper.
<i>Rust of iron.</i>		Carbonate of iron.
<i>Rubine of antimony.</i>		Sulphurated oxide of antimony.
<i>Red nitrated mercury.</i>		{ Red oxide of mercury by nitric acid.

OLD NAMES.

NEW NAMES.

S

<i>Saffron of mars.</i>	Oxide of iron.
<i>Saffron, aperient, of mars.</i>	Carbonate of iron.
<i>Saffron, astringent, of mars.</i>	Brown oxide of iron.
<i>Saffron of metals.</i>	{ Semi-vitreous sulphurated oxide of antimony.
<i>Saltpetre.</i>	Nitrate of potash, or nitre.
<i>Saturn.</i>	Lead.
<i>Soaps, acid.</i>	Acid soaps.
<i>Soaps, alkaline.</i>	Alkaline soaps.
<i>Soaps, earthy, or oleo-terrene combinations of M. Berthollet.</i>	{ Earthy soaps.
<i>Soaps, metallic, or oleo-metallic combinations of M. Berthollet.</i>	{ Metallic soaps.
<i>Soap of Starkey.</i>	Saponula of potassi.
<i>Sebates, (salts.)</i>	Sebates.
<i>Salt, ammoniacal acetous.</i>	{ Ammoniacal acetite. Acetite of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, calcareous acetous.</i>	{ Calcareous acetite. Acetite of lime.
<i>Salt, acetous of clay.</i>	{ Aluminous acetite. Acetite of aluminos.
<i>Salt, acetous of zinc.</i>	Acetite of zinc.
<i>Salt, magnesian acetous.</i>	{ Magnesian acetite. Acetite of magnesia.
<i>Salt, acetous martial.</i>	Acetite of iron.
<i>Salt, acetous mineral.</i>	Acetite of soda.
<i>Sal admirabile perlatum.</i>	Superfaturated phosphate of soda.
<i>Sal Alembroth.</i>	Ammoniac-mercurial muriate.
<i>Sal ammoniac.</i>	{ Ammoniacal muriate. Muriate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, cretaceous ammoniacal.</i>	Ammoniacal carbonate.
<i>Sal ammoniac, fixed.</i>	{ Calcareous muriate. Muriate of lime.
<i>Sal ammoniacal, nitrous.</i>	{ Ammoniacal nitrate. Nitrate of ammoniac.

OLD NAMES.	S	NEW NAMES.
<i>Salt ammoniacal, (a secret of Glauber's.)</i>	{	Ammoniacal sulphate. Sulphate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, bitter cathartic.</i>	{	Magnesian fulphate. Sulphate of magnesia.
<i>Salt, ammoniacal sedative.</i>	{	Ammoniacal borate. Borate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, ammoniacal sparry.</i>	{	Ammoniacal fluuate. Fluuate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, ammoniacal vitriolic.</i>	{	Ammoniacal sulphate. Sulphate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt, common.</i>		Muriate of soda.
<i>Salt, English.</i>	{	Ammoniacal carbonate. Carbonate of ammoniac.
<i>Salt of colcothar.</i>	{	Sulphate of iron, (<i>its particular state not well known.</i>)
<i>Salt, kitchen.</i>		Muriate of soda.
<i>Salt, Glauber's.</i>		Sulphate of soda.
<i>Salt of Jupiter.</i>		Muriate of tin.
<i>Salt of milk.</i>		Sugar of milk.
<i>Salt of wisdom.</i>		Ammoniaco-mercurial muriate.
<i>Salt of Epsom.</i>	{	Magnesian fulphate. Sulphate of magnesia.
<i>Sal de Duobus.</i>		Sulphate of potash.
<i>Salt of Scheidshutz.</i>		Sulphate of magnesia.
<i>Salt of Sedlitz.</i>		Sulphate of magnesia.
<i>Salt of Segner.</i>		Sebate of potash.
<i>Salt of Seignette.</i>		Tartarite of soda.
<i>Salt of amber, obtained by crystallization.</i>	{	CrySTALLIZED succinic acid.
<i>Salt of sorrel.</i>		Acidulous oxalate of potash.
<i>Salt, febrifuge, of Sylvius.</i>		Muriate of potash.
<i>Salt, fixed, of tartar.</i>		Carbonate of potash not saturated.
<i>Salt, fusible, of urine.</i>		Phosphate of soda and ammoniac.
<i>Sal gem.</i>		Fossil muriate of soda.
<i>Salt, marine.</i>		Muriate of soda.
<i>Salt, argillaceous marine.</i>	{	Aluminous muriate. Muriate of aluminous.
<i>Salt, barotic marine.</i>	{	Barytic muriate. Muriate of barytes.

OLD NAMES.	S	NEW NAMES.
<i>Salt, calcareous marine.</i>		{ Calcareous muriate. Muriate of lime.
<i>Salt, marine, of iron.</i>		Muriate of iron.
<i>Salt, marine, of zinc.</i>		Muriate of zinc.
<i>Salt, magnesian marine.</i>		{ Magnesian muriate. Muriate of magnesia.
<i>Salt, native, of urine.</i>		Phosphate of soda and ammoniac.
<i>Salt, neutral arsenical, of Macquer.</i>		Acidulous arseniate of potash.
<i>Salt or sugar of saturn.</i>		Acetate of lead.
<i>Salt, polychrest, of Glauber.</i>		Sulphate of potash.
<i>Salt, polychrest, of Rochelle.</i>		Tartarite of soda.
<i>Salt, regaline, of gold.</i>		Muriate of gold.
<i>Salt, sedative.</i>		Boracic acid.
<i>Salt, sedative mercurial.</i>		Borate of mercury.
<i>Salt, sublimated sedative.</i>		Sublimated boracic acid.
<i>Salt, stannic-nitrous.</i>		Nitrate of tin.
<i>Salt, sulphureous, of Stahl.</i>		Sulphate of potash.
<i>Salt, vegetable.</i>		{ Tartarite of potash. Ammoniacal carbonate.
<i>Salt, volatile, of England.</i>		Sublimated succinic acid.
<i>Salt, volatile, of amber.</i>		Sulphate of lime.
<i>Selenite.</i>		{ Oxide of cobalt vitrified with filices, or <i>smalt</i> .
<i>Smalt.</i>		Soda.
<i>Soda, caustic.</i>		Carbonate of soda.
<i>Soda, cretaceous.</i>		Fluate of soda.
<i>Soda, spathose.</i>		Sulphur.
<i>Sulphur.</i>		{ Sulphurated, orange, oxide of antimony.
<i>Sulphur, gilded, of antimony.</i>		Ammoniacal fluuate.
<i>Spar, ammoniacal.</i>		Carbonate of lime.
<i>Spar, calcareous.</i>		Calcareous fluuate.
<i>Spar, fluor.</i>		Sulphate of barytes.
<i>Spar, ponderous.</i>		Carbonic acid.
<i>Spiritus sylvestris.</i>		{ White sublimated oxide of an- timony.
<i>Snow of antimony.</i>		Pyro-ligneous acid.
<i>Spirit, acid, of wood.</i>		

OLD NAMES.	S	NEW NAMES.
<i>Spirit, volatile alkaline.</i>		Gasammoniac, or ammoniacal gas.
<i>Spirit, ardent, or spirit of wine.</i>		Alcohol.
<i>Spirit of Mendererus.</i>		Ammoniacal acetite.
<i>Spirit of nitre.</i>		Nitric acid diluted in water.
<i>Spirit, fuming, of nitre.</i>		Nitrous acid.
<i>Spirit, dulcified, of nitre.</i>		Nitric alcohol.
<i>Spirit of salt.</i>		Muriatic acid.
<i>Spirit of sal ammoniac.</i>		Ammoniac.
<i>Spirit of wine.</i>		Alcohol.
<i>Spirit of vitriol.</i>		Sulphuric acid diluted in water.
<i>Spirit of Venus.</i>		Acetic acid.
<i>Spiritus rector.</i>		Aroma.
<i>Spirits, acid.</i>		Acids diluted in water.
<i>Spirit, volatile, of sal ammoniac.</i>		Ammoniac diluted in water.
<i>Sublimate, corrosive.</i>		Corrosive muriate of mercury.
<i>Sublimate, mild.</i>		Mild muriate of mercury.
<i>Lemon, or citron juice.</i>		Citric acid.
<i>Semi-metals.</i>		Semi-metals.
<i>Succinum.</i>		Amber.
<i>Stone, infernal.</i>		Melted nitrate of silver.
<i>Sugar.</i>		Sugar.
<i>Sugar candy.</i>		Crystallized sugar.
<i>Sugar of saturn.</i>		Acetite of lead.
<i>Sugar or salt of milk.</i>		Sugar of milk.
<i>Syderite.</i>		Phosphate of iron.
<i>Stearch.</i>		Stearch.
<i>Syderotete of M. de Morveau.</i>		Phosphure of iron.
<i>Steel.</i>		Steel.
<i>Stone in the bladder.</i>		Lithic acid.

T

<i>Tartar.</i>	Acidulous tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, ammoniacal.</i>	Ammoniacal tartarite.
<i>Tartar, antimoniated.</i>	Antimoniated tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, calcareous.</i>	Tartarite of lime.

OLD NAMES.	T	NEW NAMES.
<i>Tartar, chalybeate.</i>		Ferruginous-tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, cretaceous.</i>		Carbonate of potash.
<i>Tartar, crude.</i>		Tartar.
<i>Tartar, cupreous.</i>		Tartarite of copper.
<i>Tartar of magnesia.</i>		Tartarite of magnesia.
<i>Tartar of potash.</i>		Tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar of soda.</i>		Tartarite of soda.
<i>Tartar, emetic.</i>		Antimoniated tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, soluble martial.</i>		Ferruginous tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, mephitic.</i>		Carbonate of potash.
<i>Tartar, mercurial.</i>		Mercurial tartarite.
<i>Tartar, saturnine.</i>		Tartarite of lead.
<i>Tartar, spathose.</i>		Fluate of potash.
<i>Tartar, soluble.</i>		Tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, stibiated.</i>		Antimoniated tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, tartarised.</i>		Tartarite of potash.
<i>Tartar, tartarised, containing antimony.</i>	{	Tartarite of potash, with an ad- dition of antimony.
<i>Tartar, vitriolated.</i>		Sulphate of potash.
<i>Tartar, acrid tincture of.</i>		Alcohol of potash.
<i>Tinctures, spiritous.</i>		Resinous alcohol.
<i>Terra animalis.</i>	{	Calcareous phosphate. Phosphate of lime.
<i>Terrene base of alum.</i>		Alumina.
<i>Terrene base of ponderous spar.</i>		Barytes.
<i>Terra calcaria.</i>		Lime, or calcareous earth.
<i>Terra aluminæ.</i>		Alumina.
<i>Terra foliata, crystallizable.</i>		Acetite of soda.
<i>Terra foliata tartari.</i>		Acetite of potash.
<i>Terra foliata mercurialis.</i>		Acetite of mercury.
<i>Terra foliata mineralis.</i>		Acetite of soda.
<i>Terra magnesiæ.</i>		Carbonate of magnesia.
<i>Terra muriatica of M. Kirvan.</i>		Magnesia.
<i>Terra ponderosa.</i>		Barytes.
<i>Terra ponderosa, aerated.</i>		Carbonate of barytes.
<i>Terra silicea.</i>		Silices, or siliceous earth.

OLD NAMES.	T	NEW NAMES.
<i>Tungstic salts.</i>		Tunstates.
<i>Tungstic salt, ammoniacal.</i>		Ammoniacal tunstate.
<i>Tungstic salt of potash.</i>		Tunstate of potash.
<i>Turbith, mineral.</i>		{ Yellow mercurial oxide by sulphuric acid.
<i>Turbith, nitrous.</i>		{ Yellow mercurial oxide by nitrous acid.
<i>Tin.</i>		Tin.
<i>Tin, corneous.</i>		Muriate of tin.

V

<i>Verdigris.</i>		Green oxide of copper.
<i>Verdigris of commerce.</i>		{ Acetite of copper, with an excess of oxide of copper.
<i>Venus.</i>		Copper.
<i>Verdet (Fr.), or verdigris.</i>		Acetite of copper.
<i>Verdigris, distilled.</i>		Crystallized acetite of copper.
<i>Vitrum antimonii.</i>		{ Vitreous sulphurated oxide of antimony.
<i>Vivum argentum.</i>		Mercury.
<i>Vinegar, distilled.</i>		Acetous acid.
<i>Vinegar of saturn.</i>		Acetite of lead.
<i>Vinegar, radical.</i>		Acetic acid.
<i>Vitriol, ammoniacal.</i>		Ammoniacal sulphate.
<i>Vitriol, white.</i>		Sulphate of zinc.
<i>Vitriol, blue.</i>		Sulphate of copper.
<i>Vitriol, calcareous.</i>		Sulphate of lime.
<i>Vitriol of antimony.</i>		Sulphate of antimony.
<i>Vitriol of silver.</i>		Sulphate of silver.
<i>Vitriol of clay.</i>		Sulphate of aluminous.
<i>Vitriol of bismuth.</i>		Sulphate of bismuth.
<i>Vitriol of lime.</i>		Calcareous sulphate.
<i>Vitriol of Cyprus.</i>		Sulphate of copper.
<i>Vitriol of cobalt.</i>		Sulphate of cobalt.
<i>Vitriol of copper.</i>		Sulphate of copper.

OLD NAMES.

V

NEW NAMES.

<i>Vitriol of luna.</i>	Sulphate of silver.
<i>Vitriol of manganese.</i>	Sulphate of manganese.
<i>Vitriol of mercury.</i>	Sulphate of mercury.
<i>Vitriol of nickel.</i>	Sulphate of nickel.
<i>Vitriol of platina.</i>	Sulphate of platina.
<i>Vitriol of lead.</i>	Sulphate of lead.
<i>Vitriol of potash.</i>	Sulphate of potash.
<i>Vitriol of soda.</i>	Sulphate of soda.
<i>Vitriol of tin.</i>	Sulphate of tin.
<i>Vitriol of zinc.</i>	Sulphate of zinc.
<i>Vitriol, magnesian.</i>	Sulphate of magnesia.
<i>Vitriol, martial.</i>	Sulphate of iron.
<i>Vitriol, green.</i>	Sulphate of iron.

W

<i>Water.</i>	Water.
<i>Water, aerated.</i>	Carbonic acid.
<i>Water, lime.</i>	Lime-water.
<i>Water, Prussian-lime.</i>	Prussiate of lime.
<i>Water, distilled.</i>	Distilled water.
<i>Water, strong, or aqua fortis.</i>	Nitric acid of commerce.
<i>Waters, gaseous.</i>	{ Waters impregnated with carbonic acid.
<i>Waters, mother.</i>	Saline deliquescent residue.
<i>Water, mercurial.</i>	{ Nitrate of mercury in a state of solution.
<i>Water, royal, or aqua regia.</i>	Nitro-muriatic acid.
<i>Waters, acidulous.</i>	{ Acidulous waters, or waters impregnated with carbonic acid.
<i>Waters, hepatic.</i>	{ Sulphureous or sulphurated waters.
<i>Wolfram of Messrs d' Elbuyar.</i>	Tungsten.

Z

<i>Zinc.</i>	Zinc.
<i>Zaffre.</i>	{ Grey oxide of cobalt, with siliceous earth, or <i>zaffre</i> .

D I C T I O N A R Y

FOR THE

NEW CHEMICAL NOMENCLATURE.

NEW NAMES.

OLD NAMES.

A

ACETATES.

Acetas, tis. f. m.

{ These are salts formed by the combination of the acetic acid (or radical vinegar) with different bases. The following names, with which there are none synonymous in the ancient Nomenclature, belong to this genus.

Acetate, aluminous.

—— of aluminous.

Acetas aluminosus.

Acetate, ammoniacal.

—— of ammoniac. *

Acetas ammoniacalis.

* For the future, we shall not repeat these two modes of expressing the base of a neutral salt together, but use them indifferently. These instances already given, are enough to show, that either the substantive or the adjective may be used, at pleasure.

This observation extends also to the Latin Nomenclature.

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Acetate of antimony.

Acetas stibii.

Acetate of silver.

Acetas argenti.

Acetate of arsenic.

Acetas arsenici.

Acetate of barytes.

Acetas barytis, or baryta.

Acetate of bismuth.

Acetas bismuthi.

Acetate of lime.

Acetas calcis.

Acetate of cobalt.

Acetas cobalti.

Acetate of copper.

Acetas cupri.

Acetate of tin.

Acetas stanni.

Acetate of iron.

Acetas ferri.

Acetate of magnesia.

Acetas magnesiæ.

Acetate of manganese.

Acetas magnesiæ.

Acetate of mercury.

Acetas hydrargyri.

Acetate of molybdena.

Acetas molybdeni.

Acetate of nickel.

Acetas niccoli.

Acetate of gold.

Acetas auri.

Acetate of platina.

Acetas platini.

Acetate of lead.

Acetas plumbei.

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Acetate of potash.

Acetas potassæ.

Acetate of soda.

Acetas sodæ.

Acetate of tungsten.

Acetas tungsteni.

Acetate of zinc.

Acetas zinci.

Acetite.

Acetis, itis. f. m.

Acetite, aluminous.

Acetis aluminosus.

Acetite, ammoniacal.

Acetis ammoniacalis.

Acetite of antimony,

Acetis stibii.

Acetite of silver.

Acetis argenti.

Acetite of arsenic.

Acetis arsenicalis.

Acetite of barytes.

Acetis baryticus.

Acetite of bismuth,

Acetis bismuthi.

Acetite of lime.

Acetis calcareus.

Acetite of cobalt.

Acetis cobalti.

Acetite of copper.

Acetis cupri.

Acetite of tin.

Acetis stanni.

Acetite of iron.

Acetis ferri.

{ Salts formed by the union of the acetous acid, or distilled vinegar, with different bases.

{ *Acetited clay.*

{ *Acetous salt of clay.*

{ *Ammoniacal acetite.*

{ *Ammoniacal acetous salt.*

{ *Spirit of Mendererus.*

{ *Fuming arsenico-acetous liquor of M. Cadet.*

{ *Acetited lime.*

{ *Calcareous acetous salt.*

{ *Acetited copper.*

{ *Verdigris.*

{ *Distilled verdigris of commerce.*

{ *Crystals of Venus.*

{ *Acetited iron.*

{ *Martial acetous salt.*

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Acerite of magnesia. <i>Acetis magnesiæ.</i>	{ Magnesian acetous salt. Acetited magnesia.
Acetite of mercury. <i>Acetis hydrargyri.</i>	{ Acetited mercury. Terra foliata mercurialis.
Acetite of molybdena. <i>Acetis molybdeni.</i>	
Acetite of nickel. <i>Acetis niccoli.</i>	
Acetite of gold. <i>Acetis auri.</i>	
Acetite of platina. <i>Acetis platini.</i>	
Acetite of lead. <i>Acetis plumbi.</i>	{ Acetited lead. Vinegar of saturn. Salt or sugar of saturn.
Acetite of potash. <i>Acetis potassæ, vel potassæus.</i>	{ Acetited potash. Terra foliata tartari.
Acetite of soda. <i>Acetis sodæ, vel sodaceus.</i>	{ Acetited soda. Mineral acetous salt. Terra foliata mineralis. Crystallizable terra foliata.
Acetite of tungsten. <i>Acetis tungsteni.</i>	
Acetite of zinc. <i>Acetis zinci.</i>	{ Acetited zinc. Acetous salt of zinc.
Acid, acetous. <i>Acidum acetosum.</i>	{ Acetous acid. Distilled vinegar.
Acid, acetic. <i>Acidum aceticum.</i>	{ Radical vinegar. Spirit of Venus.
Acid, arsenic. <i>Acidum arsenicum.</i>	{ Arsenical acid.
Acid, benzoic. <i>Acidum benzoicum.</i>	{ Benzonic acid. Acid of benzoin. Salt of benzoin.
Acid, sublimated benzoic. <i>Acidum benzoicum sublimatum.</i>	{ Flowers of benzoin. Volatile salt of benzoin.
Acid, bombyc. <i>Acidum bombycicum.</i>	{ Acid of the silk worm. Bombycine acid.

NEW NAMES.	A	OLD NAMES.
Acid, boracic. <i>Acidum boracicum.</i>	{	Volatile narcotic salt of vitriol. Sedative salt. Acid of borax. Boracine acid.
Acid, carbonic. <i>Acidum carbonicum.</i>		Gas sylvestre. Spiritus sylvestris. Fixed air. Aerial acid. Atmospheric acid. Mephitic acid. Cretaceous acid. Carbonaceous acid.
Acid, citric. <i>Acidum citricum.</i>		{ Lemon juice. Citronian acid.
Acid, fluoric. <i>Acidum fluoricum.</i>		{ Fluoric acid. Spathose acid.
Acid, formic. <i>Acidum formicum.</i>	{	Acid of ants. Formicine acid.
Acid, gallic. <i>Acidum galle, seu gallaceum.</i>		{ Astringent principle. Gallic acid.
Acid, lactic. <i>Acidum lacticum.</i>	{	Sour whey. Galactic acid.
Acid, lithic. <i>Acidum lithicum.</i>		{ Acid of the stone in the bladder. Bezoardic acid. Lithiatic acid.
Acid, malic. <i>Acidum malicum.</i>	{	Acid of apples. Malusian acid.
Acid, molybdic. <i>Acidum molybdicum.</i>		{ Acid of molybdena. Molybdic acid. Acid of Wolfram.
Acid, muriatic. <i>Acidum muriaticum.</i>	{	Acid of marine salt. Fuming spirit of salt. Marine acid.
Acid, oxygenated muriatic. <i>Acidum muriaticum oxigenatum</i>		{ Dephlogisticated marine acid. Aerated marine acid.
Acid, nitrous. <i>Acidum nitrosum.</i>		{ Ruddy nitrous acid. Phlogisticated nitrous acid. Fuming nitrous acid. Fuming spirit of nitre.

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Acid, nitric. <i>Acidum nitricum.</i>	{ White nitrous acid. Nitric acid without gas. Dephlogisticated nitrous acid.
Acid, nitro-muriatic. <i>Acidum nitro-muriaticum.</i>	{ Aqua regia. Regaline acid.
Acid, oxalic. <i>Acidum oxalicum.</i>	{ Acid of sorrel. Oxaline acid. Saccharine acid. Acid of sugar.
Acid, phosphorous. <i>Acidum phosphorosum.</i>	{ Volatile phosphoric acid.
Acid, phosphoric. <i>Acidum phosphoricum.</i>	{ Phosphoric acid. Acid of urine.
Acid, prussic. <i>Acidum prussicum.</i>	{ Colouring matter of Prussian blue.
Acid, pyro-ligneous. <i>Acidum pyro-lignosum.</i>	{ Empyreumatic acid spirit of wood.
Acid, pyro-mucous. <i>Acidum pyro-mucosum.</i>	{ Spirit of honey, sugar, &c. Syrupous acid.
Acid, pyro-tartarous. <i>Acidum pyro-tartarosum.</i>	{ Spirit of tartar.
Acid, saccho-lactic. <i>Acidum saccho-lacticum.</i>	{ Acid of sugar of milk. Saccho-lactic acid.
Acid, sebacic. <i>Acidum sebacicum.</i>	{ Sebaceous acid. Acid of tallow.
Acid, succinic. <i>Acidum succinicum.</i>	{ Acid of amber. Volatile salt of amber.
Acid, sulphureous. <i>Acidum sulphurosusum.</i>	{ Sulphureous acid. Volatile sulphureous acid. Phlogisticated vitriolic acid. Spirit of sulphur.
Acid, sulphuric. <i>Acidum sulphuricum.</i>	{ Acid of sulphur. Vitriolic acid. Oil of vitriol. Spirit of vitriol.
Acid, tartareous. <i>Acidum tartarosum.</i>	{ Tartareous acid. Acid of tartar.

NEW NAMES.	A	OLD NAMES.
Acid, tungstic. <i>Acidum tungsticum.</i>	{	Tungstic acid. Acid of tungsten. Acid of Wolfram.
Affinity. <i>Affinitas.</i>	}	Affinity.
Aggregation. <i>Aggregatio.</i>	}	Aggregation.
Aggregates. <i>Aggregata.</i>	}	Aggregates.
Atmospheric air. <i>Aer atmosphaericus.</i>	}	Atmospheric air.
Alkalis. <i>Alkalia.</i>	}	Alkalis in general.
Alcohol. <i>Alcohol</i> , indecl.	{	Spirit of wine. Ardent spirit.
Alcohol of potash. <i>Alcohol potassæ.</i>	{	Lilium of Paracelsus. Acrid tincture of tartar.
Alcohol, nitric. <i>Alcohol nitricum.</i>	}	Dulcified spirit of nitre.
Alcohols, resinous. <i>Alcohol resinosa.</i>	}	Spiritous tinctures.
Alloy. <i>Connubium metallicum.</i>	}	Alloy of metals.
Alumina. <i>Alumina.</i>	{	Earth of alum. Base of alum. Pure clay.
Amalgam.		Amalgam.
Ammoniac. <i>Ammoniaca.</i>	{	Caustic volatile alkali. Fluor volatile alkali. Volatile spirit of sal ammoniac.
Antimony. <i>Antimonium</i> , <i>stibium.</i>	}	Regulus of antimony.
Aroma. <i>Aroma.</i>	{	Spiritus rector. Odorate principle.
Arfeniates. <i>Arsenias</i> , <i>tis.</i> <i>f. m.</i>	}	Arsenical salts.

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Acidulous arseniate of potash. } *Macquer's arsenical neutral salt.*
Arsenias acidulus potassæ.

Arseniate of alumina.

Arsenias aluminæ.

Arseniate of ammoniac.

Arsenias ammoniacæ, seu ammoniacalis. } *Arsenical ammoniac.*

Arseniate of silver.

Arsenias argenti.

Arseniate of baryta.

Arsenias barytæ.

Arseniate of bismuth.

Arsenias bismuthi.

Arseniate of lime.

Arsenias calcis.

Arseniate of cobalt.

Arsenias cobalti.

Arseniate of copper.

Arsenias cupri.

Arseniate of tin.

Arsenias stanni.

Arseniate of iron.

Arsenias ferri.

Arseniate of magnesia.

Arsenias magnesiæ.

Arseniate of manganese.

Arsenias magnesi.

Arseniate of mercury.

Arsenias hydrargyri.

Arseniate of molybdena.

Arsenias molybdeni.

Arseniate of nickel.

Arsenias niccoli.

Arseniate of gold.

Arsenias auri.

Arseniate of platina.

Arsenias platini.

NEW NAMES.

A

OLD NAMES.

Arseniate of lead.

Arsenias plumbi.

Arseniate of potash.

Arsenias potassa.

Arseniate of soda.

Arsenias soda.

Arseniate of tungsten.

Arsenias tungsteni.

Arseniate of zinc.

Arsenias zinci.

Azote.

Base of atmospheric mephitise.

B

Barytes, or baryta.

Baryta.

Terra ponderosa.
Earth of ponderous spar.
Barotes.

Balsams.

Balsama.

*Balsams of Bucquet.**

Benzoin.

Benzoe.

Benzoin.

Benzone.

Benzoate.

Benzoas, tis. f. m.

A salt formed by the union of the benzoic acid with different bases.

Salts of this kind have no names in the old Nomenclature.

Benzoate of alumina.

Benzoas aluminosus.

Benzoate of ammoniac.

Benzoas ammoniacalis.

Benzoate of antimony.

Benzoas stibii.

* Resins combined with a concrete acid salt,

NEW NAMES.

B

OLD NAMES.

Benzoate of silver.

Benzoas argenti.

Benzoate of arsenic.

Benzoas arsenicalis.

Benzoate of barytes.

Benzoas baryticus.

Benzoate of bismuth.

Benzoas bismuthi.

Benzoate of lime.

Benzoas calcareus.

Benzoate of cobalt.

Benzoas cobalti.

Benzoate of copper.

Benzoas cupri.

Benzoate of tin.

Benzoas stanni.

Benzoate of iron.

Benzoas ferri.

Benzoate of magnesia.

Benzoas magnesiæ.

Benzoate of manganese.

Benzoas magnesi.

Benzoate of mercury.

Benzoas hydrargyri.

Benzoate of molybdena.

Benzoas molybdeni.

Benzoate of nickel.

Benzoas nicccli.

Benzoate of gold.

Benzoas auri.

Benzoate of platina.

Benzoas platini.

Benzoate of lead.

Benzoas plumbi.

Benzoate of potash.

Benzoas potassæ.

NEW NAMES.

B

OLD NAMES.

Benzoate of soda.

Benzoas sodæ.

Benzoate of tungsten.

Benzoas tungsteni.

Benzoate of zinc.

Benzoas zinci.

Bismuth.

Bismuthum.} *Bismuth.*

Bitumens.

Bitumina.} *Bitumens.*

Bombiate.

Bombias, tis. f. m.

{ Salts formed by the union of the bombic acid with different bases.

{ This genus of salts had no name in the old Nomenclature.

Bombiate of alumina.

Bombias aluminosus.

Bombiate of ammoniac.

Bombias ammoniacalis.

Bombiate of antimony.

Bombias stibii.

Bombiate of silver.

Bombias argenti.

Bombiate of arsenic.

Bombias arsenicalis.

Bombiate of barytes.

Bombias baryticus.

Bombiate of bismuth.

Bombias bismuthi.

Bombiate of lime.

Bombias calcareus.

Bombiate of cobalt.

Bombias cobalti.

Bombiate of copper.

Bombias cupri.

Bombiate of tin.

Bombias stanni.

NEW NAMES.

B

OLD NAMES.

Bombiate of iron.

Bombias ferri.

Bombiate of magnesia.

Bombias magnesiæ.

Bombiate of manganese.

Bombias magnesi.

Bombiate of mercury.

Bombias hydrargyri.

Bombiate of molybdena.

Bombias molybdeni.

Bombiate of nickel.

Bombias niccoli.

Bombiate of gold.

Bombias auri.

Bombiate of platina.

Bombias platini.

Bombiate of lead.

Bombias plumbi.

Bombiate of potash.

Bombias potassæ.

Bombiate of soda.

Bombias sodæ.

Bombiate of tungsten.

Bombias tungsteni.

Bombiate of zinc.

Bombias zinci.

Borate.

Boras, tis. f. m.

} *Borax.*

Borate, aluminous.

Boras aluminosus.

} *Argillaceous borax.*

Borate, ammoniacal.

Boras ammoniacalis.

{ *Ammoniacal borax.*
{ *Sedative sal ammoniac.*

Borate of antimony.

Boras stibii.

} *Borax of antimony.*

Borate of silver.

Boras argenti.

NEW NAMES.

B

OLD NAMES.

Borate of arsenic.

Boras arsenici.

Borate of barytes, or baryta.

Boras barytæ.

} Ponderous or barotic borax.

Borate of bismuth.

Boras bismuthi.

Borate of lime.

Boras calcis.

Borate of cobalt.

Boras cobalti.

} Borax of cobalt.

Borate of copper.

Boras cupri.

} Borax of copper.

Borate of tin.

Boras stanni.

Borate of iron.

Boras ferri.

} Borax of iron.

Borate of magnesia.

Boras magnesie.

} Magnesian borax.

Borate of manganese.

Boras magnesi.

Borate of mercury.

Boras mercurii.{ Mercurial borax.
Mercurial sedative salt.

Borate of molybdena.

Boras molybdeni.

Borate of nickel.

Boras niccoli.

Borate of gold.

Boras auri.

Borate of platina.

Boras platini.

Borate of lead.

Boras plumbi.

Borate of potash.

Boras potassæ.

} Vegetable borax.

Borate of soda.

Boras sodæ.

{ Common borax saturated with boracic acid.

NEW NAMES.

B

OLD NAMES.

Borate of tungsten.

Boras tungsteni.

Borate of zinc.

Boras zinci.

} *Borax of zinc.*

Borate of soda, or borate
superfaturated with soda.

{ *Crude borax.*
Tinckal.
Chrysocola.
Borax of commerce.

C

Caloric.

Caloricum.

{ *Latent heat.*
Fixed heat.
Principle of heat.

Camphor.

Camphora.

} *Camphor.*

Camphorate.

Camphoras, tis. f. m.

{ A salt formed by the combination of camphoric acid with different bases.
These salts were not known formerly; and accordingly, they have no names in the old Nomenclature.

Camphorate of alumina.

Camphoras aluminosus.

Camphorate of ammoniac.

Camphoras ammoniacalis.

Camphorate of antimony.

Camphoras stibii.

Camphorate of silver.

Camphoras argenti.

Camphorate of arsenic.

Camphoras arsenicalis.

Camphorate of barytes.

Camphoras baryticus.

NEW NAMES.

C

OLD NAMES.

Camphorate of bismuth.

Camphoras bismuthi.

Camphorate of lime.

Camphoras calcareus.

Camphorate of cobalt.

Camphoras cobalti.

Camphorate of copper.

Camphoras cupri.

Camphorate of tin.

Camphoras stanni.

Camphorate of iron.

Camphoras ferri.

Camphorate of magnesia.

Camphoras magnesiæ.

Camphorate of manganese.

Camphoras magnesiæ.

Camphorate of mercury.

Camphoras mercurii.

Camphorate of molybdena.

Camphoras molybdeni.

Camphorate of nickel.

Camphoras niccoli.

Camphorate of gold.

Camphoras auri.

Camphorate of platina.

Camphoras platini.

Camphorate of lead.

Camphoras plumbi.

Camphorate of potash.

Camphoras potassæ.

Camphorate of soda.

Camphoras sodæ.

Camphorate of tungsten.

Camphoras tungsteni.

Camphorate of zinc.

Camphoras zinci.

OLD NAMES.	C	NEW NAMES.
Carbone. <i>Carbonicum.</i>	}	Pure coal.
Carbonate. <i>Carbonas, tis, f. m.</i>	{	A salt formed by the union of carbonic acid with different bases.
Carbonate of alumina. <i>Carbonas aluminosus.</i>	}	Cretaceous clay.
Carbonate, ammoniacal. <i>Carbonas ammoniacæ.</i>	{	Ammoniacal chalk. Cretaceous ammoniacal salt. Concrete volatile alkali. Ammoniacal mephite. English sal volatile.
Carbonate of antimony. <i>Carbonas antimonii.</i>		
Carbonate of silver. <i>Carbonas argenti.</i>		
Carbonate of arsenic. <i>Carbonas arsenici.</i>		
Carbonate of barytes. <i>Carbonas baryticus.</i>	{	Barotic or ponderous chalk. Aerated ponderous earth. Effervescent barotes. Barotic mephite.
Carbonate of bismuth. <i>Carbonas bismuthi.</i>		
Calcareous carbonate. <i>Carbonas calcareus.</i>	{	Chalk. Limestone. Calcareous mephite. Aerated calcareous earth. Effervescent calcareous earth. Calcareous spar. Cream of lime.
Carbonate of cobalt. <i>Carbonas cobalti.</i>		
Carbonate of copper. <i>Carbonas cupri.</i>		
Carbonate of tin. <i>Carbonas stanni.</i>		

NEW NAMES.

C

OLD NAMES.

Carbonate of iron.
Carbonas ferri.

{ *Aperient saffron of mars.*
Rust of iron.
Aerated iron.
Martial chalk.
Martial mephite.

Carbonate of magnesia.
Carbonas magnesiæ.

{ *Magnesian earth.*
White Magnesia.
Aerated magnesia of Bergman.
Cretaceous magnesia.
Magnesian chalk.
Effervescent magnesia.
Mephite of magnesia.
Kirwan's muriatic earth.
Powder of Count Palma, and of
Sentinelli.

Carbonate of manganese.
Carbonas magnesi.

Carbonate of mercury.
Carbonas hydrargyri.

Carbonate of molybdena,
Carbonas molybdeni.

Carbonate of nickel.
Carbonas niccoli.

Carbonate of gold.
Carbonas auri.

Carbonate of platina,
Carbonas platini.

Carbonate of lead.
Carbonas plumbi.

{ *Chalk of lead.*
Spatiose lead.
Mephite of lead.

Carbonate of potash.
Carbonas potassæ.

{ *Fixed salt of tartar.*
Vegetable fixed alkali.
Aerated vegetable fixed alkali.
Cretaceous tartar.
Mephitic tartar.
Mephite of potash.
Nitre fixed by itself.
Alkabeſt of Van Helmont.

NEW NAMES.

C

OLD NAMES.

Carbonate of soda. <i>Carbonas sodæ.</i>	<div> <div>Natrum or Natrium. Base of marine salt. Marine or mineral alkali. Crystals of soda. Cretaceous soda. Aerated soda. Effervescent soda. Mephite of soda. Aerated mineral fixed alkali. Effervescent mineral fixed alkali. Chalk of soda.</div> </div>
Carbonate of tungsten. <i>Carbonas tungsteni.</i>	
Carbonate of zinc. <i>Carbonas zinci.</i>	<div> <div>Chalk of zinc. Aerated zinc. Mephite of zinc.</div> </div>
Carbure of iron.	Plumbago.
Calcareous earth or lime, diluted in water.	Milk of lime.
Calcareous earth or lime.	<div> <div>Calcareous earth. Quicklime.</div> </div>
Citrate. <i>Citras, tis, f. m.</i>	<div> <div>A salt formed by the combination of the acid of citrons with different bases. This salt had no name in the old nomenclature.</div> </div>
Citrate of alumina. <i>Citras aluminosus.</i>	
Citrate of ammoniac. <i>Citras ammoniacalis.</i>	
Citrate of antimony. <i>Citras stibii.</i>	
Citrate of silver. <i>Citras argenti.</i>	
Citrate of arsenic. <i>Citras arsenicalis.</i>	
Citrate of barytes. <i>Citras baryticus.</i>	

NEW NAMES.

C

OLD NAMES.

Citrate of bismuth.

Citras bismuthi.

Citrate of lime.

Citras calcareus.

Citrate of cobalt.

Citras cobalti.

Citrate of copper.

Citras cupri.

Citrate of tin.

Citras stanni.

Citrate of iron.

Citras ferri.

Citrate of magnesia.

Citras magnesiæ.

Citrate of manganese.

Citras magnesiæ.

Citrate of mercury.

Citras mercurii.

Citrate of molybdena.

Citras molybdeni.

Citrate of nickel.

Citras niccoli.

Citrate of gold.

Citras auri.

Citrate of platina.

Citras platini.

Citrate of lead.

Citras plumbi.

Citrate of potash.

Citras potassæ.

Citrate of soda.

Citras sodæ.

Citrate of tungsten.

Citras tungsteni.

Citrate of zinc.

Citras zinci.

NEW NAMES.

C

OLD NAMES.

Clay, a mixture of aluminous and siliceous earths, <i>argilla</i> .	{ Clay. Potter's earth. Argillaceous earth.
Cobalt.	{ Regulus of Cobalt. Cobalt, or cobolt.
Copper. <i>Cuprum</i> .	{ Copper. Venus.

D

Diamond.	Diamond.
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E

Ether, acetic. <i>Ether aceticum</i> .	{ Acetous ether.
Ether, muriatic. <i>Ether muriaticum</i> .	{ Marine ether.
Ether, nitric. <i>Ether nitricum</i> .	{ Nitrous ether.
Ether sulphuric. <i>Ether sulphuricum</i> .	{ Vitriolic ether.
Extractive principle. <i>Extractum</i> .	{ Extract.

F

Fecula. <i>Fecula</i> .	{ Fecula of plants.
Fluate. <i>Fluas, tis. f. m.</i>	{ A salt formed by the combination of the fluoric acid with different bases.
Fluate of alumina. <i>Fluas aluminae</i> .	{ Argillaceous fluor. Spathose clay.

NEW NAMES.

F

OLD NAMES.

Fluate, ammoniacal.
Fluas ammoniacalis.

{ Ammoniacal sparry salt.
 { Sparry ammoniac.
 { Ammoniacal spar.
 { Ammoniacal fluor.

Fluate of antimony.
Fluas stibii.

Fluate of silver.
Fluas argenti.

Fluate of arsenic.
Fluas arsenicalis.

Fluate of barytes.
Fluas barytæ.

{ Ponderous fluor.
 { Barotic fluor.

Fluate of bismuth.
Fluas bisnuthi.

Fluate of lime.
Fluas calcareus.

{ Fluor spar.
 { Vitreous spar.
 { Cubic spar.
 { Phosphoric spar.
 { Sparry fluor.

Fluate of cobalt.
Fluas cobalti.

Fluate of copper.
Fluas cupri.

Fluate of tin.
Fluas stanni.

Fluate of iron.
Fluas ferri.

Fluate of magnesia.
Fluas magnesicæ.

{ Fluorated magnesia.
 { Sparry magnesia.
 { Magnesian fluor.

Fluate of manganese.
Fluas magnesiæ.

Fluate of mercury.
Fluas mercurii.

Fluate of molybdena.
Fluas molybdeni.

Fluate of nickel.
Fluas niccolii.

NEW NAMES.

OLD NAMES.

F

Fluate of gold.

Fluas auri.

Fluate of platina.

Fluas platini.

Fluate of lead.

Fluas plumbi.

Fluate of potash.

Fluas potasse.

Fluate of soda.

Fluas sodæ.

Fluate of tungsten.

Fluas tungsteni.

Fluate of zinc.

Fluas zinci.

Formiate.

Formias, tis, f. m.

{ Tartareous fluor.
 { Sparry tartar.

{ Fluor of soda.
 { Sparry soda.

{ Salt formed by the combination of the formic acid with different bases.

{ This genus of salt has no name in the old nomenclature.

Formiate of alumina.

Formias aluminosus.

Formiate of ammoniac.

Formias ammoniacalis.

Formiate of antimony.

Formias stibii.

Formiate of silver.

Formias argenti.

Formiate of arsenic.

Formias arsenicalis.

Formiate of barytes.

Formias baryticus.

Formiate of bismuth.

Formias bismuthi.

Formiate of lime.

Formias calcareus.

NEW NAMES.

OLD NAMES.

F

Formiate of cobalt.

Formias cobalti.

Formiate of copper.

Formias cupri.

Formiate of tin.

Formias stanni.

Formiate of iron.

Formias ferri.

Formiate of magnesia.

Formias magnesia.

Formiate of manganese.

Formias magnesi.

Formiate of mercury.

Formias mercurii.

Formiate of molybdena.

Formias molybdeni.

Formiate of nickel.

Formias niccoli.

Formiate of gold.

Formias auri.

Formiate of platina.

Formias platini.

Formiate of lead.

Formias plumbi.

Formiate of potash.

Formias potassæ.

Formiate of soda.

Formias sodæ.

Formiate of tungsten.

Formias tungsteni.

Formiate of zinc.

Formias zinci.

NEW NAMES.

OLD NAMES.

G

Gas.	{ Gas.
Gas.	{ Elastic fluids.
	{ Aeriform fluids.
Gas, acetous acid.	{ Acetous acid gas.
Gas acidum acetosum.	
	{ Fixed air.
Gas, carbonic acid.	{ Solid air of Hales.
Gas acidum carbonicum.	{ Cretaceous acid gas.
	{ Mephitic gas.
	{ Aerial acid.
Gas, fluoric acid.	{ Sparry acid gas.
Gas acidum fluoricum.	{ Fluoric acid gas.
Gas, muriatic acid.	{ Marine air.
Gas acidum muriaticum.	{ Marine acid gas.
	{ Muriatic acid gas.
Gas, oxygenated muriatic acid.	{ Aerated muriatic acid gas.
Gas acidum muriaticum oxygenatum.	{ Dephlogisticated marine acid.
Gas, nitrous acid.	{ Nitrous acid gas.
Gas acidum nitrosum.	
Gas, prussic acid.	{ Prussian gas.
Gas acidum prussicum.	
Gas, sulphureous acid.	{ Sulphureous acid gas.
Gas acidum sulphureum.	{ Vitriolic acid air.
Gas, ammoniacal.	{ Alkaline gas.
Gas ammoniacale.	{ Alkaline air.
	{ Volatile alkaline gas.
	{ Vitiated air.
Gas, azotic.	{ Impure air.
Gas azoticum.	{ Phlogisticated air.
	{ Phlogisticated gas.
	{ Atmospheric mephitic.
Gas, hydrogenous.	{ Inflammable gas.
Gas hydrogenium.	{ Inflammable air.
	{ Phlogiston of Mr Kirwan.

NEW NAMES.

G

OLD NAMES.

Gas, carbonated hydrogenous. <i>Gas hydrogenium carbonatum.</i>	}	<i>Carbonaceous inflammable gas.</i>
Gas, hydrogenous, of marshes. <i>Gas hydrogenium paludum.</i>		
Gas, phosphorized hydrogenous. <i>Gas hydrogenium phosphorifatum.</i>	}	<i>Phosphoric gas.</i>
Gas, sulphurated hydrogenous. <i>Gas hydrogenium sulphuratum.</i>		
Gas, nitrous. <i>Gas nitrosum.</i>	}	<i>Nitrous gas.</i>
Gas, oxygenous. <i>Gas oxigenium.</i>		
Gluten, or the glutinous principle. <i>Gluten.</i>	}	<i>Vital air.</i>
		<i>Pure air.</i>
		<i>Dephlogisticated air.</i>
Gold. <i>Aurum.</i>	}	<i>Gluten of flour of wheat.</i>
	}	<i>Vegeto-animal matter.</i>
	}	<i>Gold.</i>

I

Iron. <i>Ferrum.</i>	}	<i>Iron.</i>

L.

Lactate.
Lactas, tis. f. m.

Salts formed by the union of the acid of sour whey, or the lactic acid, with different bases. These salts were not known before Scheele; and their properties being as yet but little examined, they have hitherto received no name.

NEW NAMES.

L

OLD NAMES.

Lactate of alumina.

Lactas aluminosus.

Lactate of ammoniac.

Lactas ammoniacalis.

Lactate of antimony.

Lactas stibii.

Lactate of silver.

Lactas argenti.

Lactate of arsenic.

Lactas arsenicalis.

Lactate of barytes.

Lactas baryticus.

Lactate of bismuth.

Lactas bismuthi.

Lactate of lime.

Lactas calcareus.

Lactate of cobalt.

Lactas cobalti.

Lactate of copper.

Lactas cupri.

Lactate of tin.

Lactas stanni.

Lactate of iron.

Lactas ferri.

Lactate of magnesia.

Lactas magnesiæ.

Lactate of manganese.

Lactas magnesi.

Lactate of mercury.

Lactas hydrargyri.

Lactate of molybdena.

Lactas molybdeni.

Lactate of nickel.

Lactas niccoli.

Lactate of gold.

Lactas auri.

NEW NAMES.

L

OLD NAMES.

Lactate of platina.

Lactas platini.

Lactate of lead.

Lactas plumbi.

Lactate of potash.

Lactas potassæ.

Lactate of soda.

Lactas sodæ.

Lactate of tungsten.

Lactas tungsteni.

Lactate of zinc.

Lactas zinci.

Lead.

Plumbum.

Light.

{ Lead.
Saturn.

Light.

Lithiate.

Lithias, tis. f. m.

{ Salts formed by the union of
the lithic acid, or stone in the
bladder, with different bases.
These salts are not compre-
hended in the ancient Nomen-
clature, being unknown before
Scheele.

Lithiate of alumina.

Lithias aluminosus.

Lithiate of ammoniac.

Lithias ammoniacalis.

Lithiate of antimony.

Lithias stibii.

Lithiate of silver.

Lithias argenti.

Lithiate of arsenic.

Lithias arsenicalis.

Lithiate of barytes.

Lithias baryticus.

Lithiate of bismuth.

Lithias bismuthi.

Lithiate of lime.

Lithias calcareus.

NEW NAMES.

L

OLD NAMES.

Lithiate of cobalt.

Lithias cobalti.

Lithiate of copper.

Lithias cupri.

Lithiate of tin.

Lithias stanni.

Lithiate of iron.

Lithias ferri.

Lithiate of magnesia.

Lithias magnesiæ.

Lithiate of manganese.

Lithias magnesi.

Lithiate of mercury.

Lithias hydrargyri.

Lithiate of molybdena.

Lithias molybdeni.

Lithiate of nickel.

Lithias niccoli.

Lithiate of gold.

Lithias auri.

Lithiate of platina.

Lithias platini.

Lithiate of lead.

Lithias plumbi.

Lithiate of potash.

Lithias potassæ.

Lithiate of soda.

Lithias sodæ.

Lithiate of tungsten.

Lithias tungsteni.

Lithiate of zinc.

Lithias zinci.

M

Malate.

Malas, tir. f. m.

Salt formed by the union of the malic acid, or acid of apples, with different bases.

This genus of salt has not yet obtained a name in the old Nomenclature.

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Malate of alumina.

Malas aluminosus.

Malate of ammoniac.

Malas ammoniacalis.

Malate of antimony.

Malas sibi.

Malate of silver.

Malas argenti.

Malate of arsenic.

Malas arsenicalis.

Malate of barytes.

Malas baryticus.

Malate of bismuth.

Malas bismuthi.

Malate of lime.

Malas calcareus.

Malate of cobalt.

Malas cobalti.

Malate of copper.

Malas cupri.

Malate of tin.

Malas stanni.

Malate of iron.

Malas ferri.

Malate of magnesia.

Malas magnesiæ.

Malate of manganese.

Malas magnesi.

Malate of mercury.

Malas hydrargyri.

Malate of molybdena.

Malas molybdeni.

Malate of nickel.

Malas niccoli.

Malate of gold.

Malas auri.

Malate of platina.

Malas platini.

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Malate of lead.

Malas plumbi.

Malate of potash.

Malas potassæ.

Malate of soda.

Malas sodæ.

Malate of tungsten.

Malas tungsteni.

Malate of zinc.

Malas zinci.

Manganese.

Magnesium.

} *Regulus of manganese.*

Mercury.

Hydrargyrum.

{ *Mercury.*
{ *Quicksilver.*

Molybdate.

Molybdas, tis, f. m.

{ Salt formed by the union of
the molybdic acid with different
bases. -
This genus of salts had no
name in the old Nomenclature.

Molybdate of alumina.

Molybdas aluminosus.

Molybdate of ammoniac.

Molybdas ammoniacalis.

Molybdate of antimony.

Molybdas stibii.

Molybdate of silver.

Molybdas argenti.

Molybdate of arsenic.

Molybdas arsenicalis.

Molybdate of barytes.

Molybdas baryticus.

Molybdate of bismuth.

Molybdas bismuthi.

Molybdate of lime.

Molybdas calcareus.

Molybdate of cobalt.

Molybdas cobalti.

Molybdate of copper.

Molybdas cupri.

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Molybdate of tin.

Molybdaſ ſtanni.

Molybdate of iron.

Molybdaſ ferri.

Molybdate of magnesia.

Molybdaſ magnesiæ.

Molybdate of manganese.

Molybdaſ magnesiæ.

Molybdate of mercury.

Molybdaſ hydrargyri.

Molybdate of nickel.

Molybdaſ niccoli.

Molybdate of gold.

Molybdaſ auri.

Molybdate of platina.

Molybdaſ platini.

Molybdate of lead.

Molybdaſ plumbi.

Molybdate of potash.

Molybdaſ potaſſæ.

Molybdate of soda.

Molybdaſ ſodæ.

Molybdate of tungsten.

Molybdaſ tungſteni.

Molybdate of zinc.

Molybdaſ zinci.

Molybdena.

Regulus of molybdena.

Mucus.

Mucilage.

Muriate.

Murias, tis. ſ. m.{ Salt formed by the union of the
muriatic acid with different bases.

Muriate of alumina.

Murias aluminofus.{ *Marine alum.*{ *Argillaceous marine salt.*

Muriate of ammoniac.

Murias ammoniacalis.{ *Sal ammoniac.*{ *Salmiac.*

Muriate of antimony.

Murias ſibii.{ *Muriate of antimony.*

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Muriate, fuming, of antimony. <i>Murias sibiifumans.</i>	} Butter of antimony.
Muriate of silver. <i>Murias argenti.</i>	{ Corneous silver. Corneous luna.
Muriate of arsenic. <i>Murias arsenicalis.</i>	
Muriate, sublimated, of arsenic. <i>Murias arsenicalis sublimatus.</i>	} Butter of arsenic.
Muriate of barytes. <i>Murias baryticus.</i>	} Barotic marine salt,
Muriate of bismuth. <i>Murias bismuthi.</i>	} Muriate of bismuth.
Muriate, sublimated, of bismuth. <i>Murias bismuthi sublimatus.</i>	} Butter of bismuth.
Muriate of lime. <i>Murias calcareus.</i>	{ Mother water of marine salt. Calcareous marine salt. Fixed sal ammoniac.
Muriate of cobalt. <i>Murias cobalti.</i>	} Ink of sympathy.
Muriate of copper. <i>Murias cupri.</i>	} Muriate of copper.
Muriate, sublimated ammoniacal, of copper. <i>Murias cupri ammoniacalis sublimatus.</i>	} Cupreous ammoniacal flowers.
Muriate of tin. <i>Murias stanni.</i>	} Salt of Jupiter.
Muriate, concrete, of tin. <i>Murias stanni concretus.</i>	{ Solid butter of tin of M. Baumé. Corneous tin.
Muriate, fuming, of tin. <i>Murias stanni fumans.</i>	} Fuming liquor of Libavius.
Muriate, sublimated, of tin. <i>Murias stanni sublimatus.</i>	} Butter of tin.
Muriate of iron. <i>Murias ferri.</i>	{ Muriate of iron. Marine salt of iron.

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Muriate, sublimated ammoniacal, of iron. <i>Murias ferri ammoniacalis sublimatus.</i>	} <i>Martial ammoniacal flowers.</i>
Muriate of magnesia. <i>Murias magnesiæ.</i>	} <i>Marine salt with a base of magnesia.</i>
Muriate of manganese. <i>Murias magnesi.</i>	} <i>Muriate of manganese.</i>
Muriate, corrosive, of mercury. <i>Murias hydrargyri corrosivus.</i>	} <i>Corrosive sublimate.</i>
Muriate, sweet, of mercury. <i>Murias hydrargyri dulcis.</i>	} <i>Sweet sublimate.</i>
Muriate, sweet sublimated, of mercury. <i>Murias hydrargyri sublimatus.</i>	} <i>Aquila alba.</i>
Muriate of mercury and ammoniac. <i>Murias hydrargyri et ammoniacalis.</i>	} <i>Sal alembroth.</i>
Muriate of mercury by precipitation. <i>Murias hydrargyri præcipitatus.</i>	} <i>Salt of wisdom.</i> <i>White precipitated muriate.</i>
Muriate of molybdena. <i>Murias molybdeni.</i>	
Muriate of nickel. <i>Murias niccoli.</i>	
Muriate of gold. <i>Murias auri.</i>	{ <i>Muriate of gold.</i> <i>Regaline salt of gold.</i>
Muriate of platina. <i>Murias platini.</i>	{ <i>Muriate of platina.</i> <i>Regaline salt of platina.</i>
Muriate of lead. <i>Murias plumbi.</i>	{ <i>Corneous lead.</i> <i>Muriate of lead.</i>
Muriate of potash. <i>Murias potassæ.</i>	} <i>Febrifuge salt of Sylvius.</i>
Muriate of soda. <i>Murias sodæ.</i>	} <i>Marine salt.</i>

NEW NAMES.

M

OLD NAMES.

Muriate, fossil, of soda. <i>Murias sodæ fossilis.</i>	}	<i>Sal gem.</i>
Muriate of tungsten. <i>Murias tungsteni.</i>		
Muriate of zinc. <i>Murias zinci.</i>	}	<i>Marine salt of zinc.</i> <i>Muriate of zinc.</i>
Muriate, sublimated, of zinc. <i>Murias zinci sublimatus.</i>		
Muriates, oxygenated.	}	New combinations of the oxygenated muriatic acid with potash and soda, discovered by M. Berthollet.
Muriate, oxygenated, of potash. <i>Murias oxygenatus potassæ.</i>		
Muriate, oxygenated, of soda. <i>Murias oxygenatus sodæ.</i>		

N

Nitrate. <i>Nitras, tis. s. m.</i>	}	Salts formed by the combin- ation of the nitric acid with different bases.
Nitrate of alumina. <i>Nitras aluminosus.</i>		
Nitrate of ammoniac. <i>Nitras ammoniacalis.</i>	}	<i>Nitrous alum.</i> <i>Argillaceous nitre.</i> <i>Ammoniacal nitrous salt.</i> <i>Ammoniacal nitre.</i>
Nitrate of antimony. <i>Nitras stibii.</i>		
Nitrate of silver. <i>Nitras argenti.</i>	}	<i>Lunar nitre.</i> <i>Nitre of silver.</i> <i>Crystals of the moon.</i>
Nitrate, melted, of silver. <i>Nitras argenti fusus.</i>		
Nitrate of arsenic. <i>Nitras arsenicalis.</i>	}	<i>Infernal stone.</i> <i>Nitre of arsenic.</i>

NEW NAMES.	N	OLD NAMES.
Nitrate of barytes. <i>Nitras baryticus.</i>		{ Nitre of ponderous earth. Barotic nitre.
Nitrate of bismuth. <i>Nitras bismuthi.</i>		{ Nitre of bismuth.
Nitrate of lime. <i>Nitras calcareus.</i>		{ Calcareous nitre. Mother water of nitre.
Nitrate of cobalt. <i>Nitras cobalti.</i>		{ Nitre of cobalt.
Nitrate of copper. <i>Nitras cupri.</i>		{ Nitre of copper.
Nitrate of tin. <i>Nitras stanni.</i>		{ Nitre of tin. Stanno-nitrous salt.
Nitrate of iron. <i>Nitras ferri.</i>		{ Nitre of iron. Martial nitre.
Nitrate of magnesia. <i>Nitras magnesiæ.</i>		{ Nitre of magnesia. Magnesian nitre.
Nitrate of manganese. <i>Nitras magnesi.</i>		{ Nitre of manganese.
Nitrate of mercury. <i>Nitras hydrargyri.</i>		{ Mercurial nitre. Nitre of mercury.
Nitrate of mercury in a state of solution. <i>Nitras hydrargyri solutus.</i>		{ Mercurial water.
Nitrate of molybdena. <i>Nitras molybdeni.</i>		
Nitrate of nickel. <i>Nitras niccoli.</i>		{ Nitre of nickel.
Nitrate of gold. <i>Nitras auri.</i>		
Nitrate of platina. <i>Nitras platini.</i>		
Nitrate of lead. <i>Nitras plumbi.</i>		{ Nitre of lead. Saturnine nitre.
Nitrate of potash, or nitre. <i>Nitras potassæ, vel nitrum.</i>		{ Nitre. Saltpetre.

NEW NAMES.

N

OLD NAMES.

Nitrate of soda.

Nitras sodæ.{ *Cubic nitre.*
Rhomboidal nitre.

Nitrate of tungsten.

Nitras tungsteni.

Nitrate of zinc.

Nitras zinci.{ *Nitre of zinc.*

Nitrite.

Nitris, tis. f. m.{ Salt formed by the combination of the *nitrous* * acid with different bases.

{ This genus of salts had no name in the old Nomenclature, being unknown before the late discoveries.

Nitrite of alumina.

Nitris aluminosus.

Nitrite of ammoniac.

Nitris ammoniacalis.

Nitrite of antimony.

Nitris stibii.

Nitrite of silver.

Nitris argenti.

Nitrite of arsenic.

Nitris arsenicalis.

Nitrite of barytes.

Nitris baryticus.

Nitrite of bismuth.

Nitris bismuthi.

Nitrite of lime.

Nitris calcareus.

Nitrite of cobalt.

Nitris cobalti.

Nitrite of copper,

Nitris cupri.

Nitrite of tin.

*Nitris stanni,** That is, with spirit of nitre containing less oxigene than *nitric* acid, which forms *nitrates*.

NEW NAMES.

N

OLD NAMES.

- Nitrite of iron. *Nitris ferri.*
 Nitrite of magnesia. *Nitris magnesiæ.*
 Nitrite of manganese. *Nitris magnesi.*
 Nitrite of mercury. *Nitris hydrargyri.*
 Nitrite of molybdena. *Nitris molybdeni.*
 Nitrite of nickel. *Nitris niccoli.*
 Nitrite of gold. *Nitris auri.*
 Nitrite of platina. *Nitris platini.*
 Nitrite of lead. *Nitris plumbi.*
 Nitrite of potash. *Nitris potassæ.*
 Nitrite of soda. *Nitris sodæ.*
 Nitrite of tungsten. *Nitris tungsteni.*
 Nitrite of zinc. *Nitris zinci.*

O

- Oils, empyreumatic.
Olea empyreumatica.

} *Empyreumatic oils.*

- Oils, fixed.
Olea fixa.

{ *Fat oils.*
 { *Sweet oils.*
 { *Oils obtained by expression.*

- Oils, volatile.
Olea volatililia.

{ *Essential oils.*
 { *Essences.*

NEW NAMES.

N

OLD NAMES.

Oxalate.

Oxalas, tis. f. m.

Salt formed by the combination of the oxalic acid with different bases.

Scarce any of the salts of this genus had a name in the old Nomenclature.

Oxalate, acidulous, of ammoniac.

Oxalas acidulus ammoniacalis.

Oxalate, acidulous, of potash. }

Oxalas acidulus potassæ.

Salt of sorrel of commerce.

Oxalate, acidulous, of soda.

Oxalas acidulus sodæ.

Oxalate of alumina.

Oxalas aluminosus.

Oxalate of ammoniac.

Oxalas ammoniacalis.

Oxalate of antimony.

Oxalas stibii.

Oxalate of silver.

Oxalas argenti.

Oxalate of arsenic.

Oxalas arsenicalis.

Oxalate of barytes.

Oxalas baryticus.

Oxalate of bismuth.

Oxalas bismuthi.

Oxalate of lime.

Oxalas calcareus.

Oxalate of cobalt.

Oxalas cobalti.

Oxalate of copper.

Oxalas cupri.

Oxalate of tin.

Oxalas stanni.

Oxalate of iron.

Oxalas ferri.

Oxalate of magnesia.

Oxalas magnesiæ.

NEW NAMES.

O

OLD NAMES.

Oxalate of manganese.

Oxalas magnesii.

Oxalate of mercury.

Oxalas hydrargyri.

Oxalate of molybdena.

Oxalas molybdeni.

Oxalate of nickel.

Oxalas niccoli.

Oxalate of gold.

Oxalas auri.

Oxalate of platina.

Oxalas platini.

Oxalate of lead.

Oxalas plumbi.

Oxalate of potash.

Oxalas potassæ.

Oxalate of soda.

Oxalas sodæ.

Oxalate of tungsten.

Oxalas tungsteni.

Oxalate of zinc.

Oxalas zinci.

Oxide, arsenical, of potash.

Oxidum arsenicale potassæ.} *Liver of arsenic.*

Oxide, white, of arsenic.

Oxidum arsenici album.{ *White arsenic.*
} *Lime of arsenic.*

Oxide of antimony, BY THE MU-

RIATIC AND NITRIC ACIDS.

Oxidum stibii acidis muria-
tico et nitrico confectum.{ *Mineral bezoar.*Oxide of antimony, white, by
nitre.*Oxidum stibii album nitro*
confectum.{ *Diaphoretic antimony.*
} *Ceruse of antimony.*
} *Materia perlata of Kerkringius.*Oxide, white sublimated, of an-
timony.*Oxidum stibii album sublima-*
tum.{ *Snow of antimony.*
} *Flowers of antimony.*
} *Silver flowers of regulus of an-*
timony.

NEW NAMES.

O

OLD NAMES.

Oxide of antimony, by the muriatic acid. <i>Oxidum stibii acido muriatico confectum.</i>	}	<i>Powder of Algaroth.</i>
Oxide, sulphurated, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum.</i>	}	<i>Liver of antimony.</i>
Oxide, sulphurated semi-vitreous, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum semi-vitreum.</i>	}	<i>Saffron of metals.</i>
Oxide, orange-coloured sulphurated, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum aurantiacum.</i>	}	<i>Gilded sulphur of antimony.</i>
Oxide, red sulphurated, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum rubrum.</i>	}	<i>Kermes mineral.</i>
Oxide, vitreous sulphurated, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum vitreum.</i>	}	<i>Glass of antimony.</i>
Oxide, brown vitreous sulphurated, of antimony. <i>Oxidum stibii sulphuratum vitreum fuscum.</i>	}	<i>Rubine of antimony.</i>
Oxide, white sublimated, of arsenic. <i>Oxidum arsenici album sublimatum.</i>	}	<i>Flowers of arsenic.</i>
Oxide, yellow sulphurated, of arsenic. <i>Oxidum arsenici sulphuratum luteum.</i>	}	<i>Orpiment.</i>
Oxide, red sulphurated, of arsenic. <i>Oxidum arsenici sulphuratum rubrum.</i>	}	<i>Red arsenic.</i> <i>Realgar, or realgal.</i>

NEW NAMES.

O

OLD NAMES.

Oxide, white, of bismuth, by the nitric acid.	}	<i>Magistery of bismuth.</i>	
<i>Oxidum bismuthi album acido nitrico confectum.</i>		<i>White paint.</i>	
Oxide, sublimated, of bismuth.	}	<i>Flowers of bismuth.</i>	
<i>Oxidum bismuthi sublimatum.</i>			
Oxide, grey, of cobalt with si- lex, or zaffre.	}	<i>Zaffre.</i>	
<i>Oxidum cobalti cinereum cum silice.</i>			
Oxide, vitreous, of cobalt.	}	<i>Azure.</i>	
<i>Oxidum cobalti vitreum.</i>		<i>Smalt.</i>	
Oxide, green, of copper.	}	<i>Verdigrise.</i>	
<i>Oxidum cupri viride.</i>		<i>Rust of copper.</i>	
Oxide, grey, of tin.	}	<i>Putty of tin.</i>	
<i>Oxidum stanni cinereum.</i>			
Oxide, sublimated, of tin.	}	<i>Flowers of tin.</i>	
<i>Oxidum stanni sublimatum.</i>			
Oxides of iron.	}	<i>Saffrons of Mars.</i>	
<i>Oxida ferri.</i>			
Oxide, brown, of iron.	}	<i>Astringent saffron of Mars.</i>	
<i>Oxidum ferri fuscum.</i>			
Oxide, yellow, of iron.	}	<i>Ochre.</i>	
<i>Oxidum ferri luteum.</i>			
Oxide, black, of iron.	}	<i>Martial Ethiops.</i>	
<i>Oxidum ferri nigrum.</i>			
Oxide, red, of iron.	}	<i>Colcothar.</i>	
<i>Oxidum ferri rubrum.</i>			
Oxide, white, of manganese.	}	<i>White calx of manganese.</i>	
<i>Oxidum magnesi album.</i>			
Oxide, black, of manganese.	}	<i>Black magnesia.</i>	
<i>Oxidum magnesi nigrum.</i>		<i>Glass-maker's soap.</i>	
		<i>Stone of Perigueux.</i>	
Oxide, yellow, of mercury, by the nitric acid.	}	<i>Nitrous turbitb.</i>	
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri luteum acido nitrico confectum.</i>			

NEW NAMES.

O

OLD NAMES.

Oxide, yellow, of mercury by the sulphuric acid.	}	<i>Mineral turbitb.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri luteum acido sulphurico confectum.</i>		<i>Yellow precipitate.</i>
Oxide, blackish, of mercury.	}	<i>Ethiops per se.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri nigrum.</i>		
Oxide, red, of mercury by the nitric acid.	}	<i>Red precipitate.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri rubrum acido nitrico confectum.</i>		
Oxide, red, of mercury by fire.	}	<i>Precipitate per se.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri rubrum per ignem.</i>		
Oxide, black sulphurated, of mercury.	}	<i>Mineral ethiops.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri sulphuratum nigrum.</i>		
Oxide, red sulphurated, of mercury.	}	<i>Cinnabar.</i>
<i>Oxidum hydrargyri sulphuratum rubrum.</i>		
Oxide, ammoniacal, of gold.	}	<i>Fulminating gold.</i>
<i>Oxidum auri ammoniacale.</i>		
Oxide of gold by tin.	}	<i>Precipitate of gold by tin.</i>
<i>Oxidum auri per stannum.</i>		<i>Purple of Cassius.</i>
Oxides of lead.	}	<i>Lime of lead.</i>
<i>Oxida plumbi.</i>		
Oxide, white, of lead by the acetic acid.	}	<i>White of lead.</i>
<i>Oxidum plumbi album per acidum acetosum.</i>		
Oxide, semi-vitreous, of lead, or litharge.	}	<i>Litharge.</i>
<i>Oxidum plumbi semi-vitreum.</i>		
Oxide, yellow, of lead.	}	<i>Massicot.</i>
<i>Oxidum plumbi luteum.</i>		
Oxide, red, of lead, or minium.	}	<i>Minium.</i>
<i>Oxidum plumbi rubrum.</i>		

NEW NAMES.

O

OLD NAMES.

Oxide, sublimated, of zinc. <i>Oxidum zinci sublimatum.</i>	{ <i>Philosophic wool.</i> <i>Philosophic cotton.</i> <i>Flowers of zinc.</i> <i>Pompholyx.</i>
Oxides, metallic. <i>Oxida metallica.</i>	{ <i>Metallic calces.</i>
Oxides, metallic sublimated. <i>Oxida metallica sublimata.</i>	{ <i>Metallic flowers.</i>
Oxygene. <i>Oxygenium.</i>	{ <i>Oxygene.</i> <i>Base of vital air.</i> <i>Acidifying principle.</i> <i>Empyreal air.</i> <i>Principium forbile.</i>

P

Phosphate. <i>Phosphas, tis. f. m.</i>	{ Salt formed by the union of the phosphoric acid with dif- ferent bases.
Phosphate of alumina. <i>Phosphas aluminosus.</i>	
Phosphate of ammoniac. <i>Phosphas ammoniacalis.</i>	{ <i>Phosphoric ammoniac.</i> <i>Ammoniacal phosphate.</i>
Phosphate of antimony. <i>Phosphas stibii.</i>	
Phosphate of silver. <i>Phosphas argenti.</i>	
Phosphate of arsenic. <i>Phosphas arsenicalis.</i>	
Phosphate of barytes. <i>Phosphas baryticus.</i>	
Phosphate of bismuth. <i>Phosphas bismuthi.</i>	
Phosphate, calcareous, or of lime. <i>Phosphas calcareus.</i>	{ <i>Earth of bones.</i> <i>Calcareous phosphate.</i> <i>Animal earth.</i>

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Phosphate of cobalt.

Phosphas cobalti.

Phosphate of copper.

Phosphas cupri.

Phosphate of tin.

Phosphas stanni.

Phosphate of iron.

Phosphas ferri.

{ Syderite.
 { Iron of water.
 { Ore of iron from marshes.

Phosphate of magnesia.

Phosphas magnesiæ.

} Phosphate of magnesia.

Phosphate of manganese.

Phosphas magnesiæ.

Phosphate of mercury.

Phosphas hydrargyri.

} Rose precipitate of lemercy.

Phosphate of molybdena.

Phosphas molybdeni.

Phosphate of nickel.

Phosphas niccoli.

Phosphate of gold.

Phosphas auri.

Phosphate of platina.

Phosphas platini.

Phosphate of lead.

Phosphas plumbi.

Phosphate of potash.

Phosphas potassæ.

Phosphate of soda.

Phosphas sodæ.

Phosphate of soda and ammoniac.

Phosphas sodæ et ammoniacalis.

{ Native salt of urine.
 { Fusible salts of urine.

Phosphate, supersaturated, of soda.

Phosphus supersaturatus sodæ.

} Sal admirabile perlatum.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Phosphate of tungsten.

Phosphas tungsteni.

Phosphate of zinc.

Phosphas zinci.

Phosphite.

Phosphis, itis. f. m.

{ Salt formed by the union of
the phosphorous acid with dif-
ferent bases.

Phosphite of alumina.

Phosphis aluminosus.

Phosphite of ammoniac.

Phosphis ammoniacalis.

Phosphite of antimony.

Phosphis stibii.

Phosphite of silver.

Phosphis argenti.

Phosphite of arsenic.

Phosphis arsenicalis.

Phosphite of barytes.

Phosphis baryticus.

Phosphite of bismuth.

Phosphis bismuthi.

Phosphite of lime.

Phosphis calcareus.

Phosphite of cobalt.

Phosphis cobalti.

Phosphite of copper.

Phosphis cupri.

Phosphite of tin.

Phosphis stanni.

Phosphite of iron.

Phosphis ferri.

Phosphite of magnesia.

Phosphis magnesiæ.

Phosphite of manganese.

Phosphis magnesii.

Phosphite of mercury.

Phosphis hydrargyri.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Phosphite of molybdena.

Phosphis molybdeni.

Phosphite of nickel.

Phosphis niccoli.

Phosphite of gold.

Phosphis auri.

Phosphite of platina.

Phosphis platini.

Phosphite of lead.

Phosphis plumbi.

Phosphite of potash.

Phosphis potassæ.

Phosphite of soda.

Phosphis sodæ.

Phosphite of tungsten.

Phosphis tungsteni.

Phosphite of zinc.

Phosphis zinci.

Phosphorus.

Phosphorum.

} *Phosphorus of Kunckel.*

Phosphure.

Phosphoretum.

{ Combination of non-oxygenated
phosphorus with different bases.

Phosphure of copper.

Phosphoretum cupri.

Phosphure of iron.

Phosphoretum ferri.

{ *Syderum of Bergman.*
Syderotete of M. de Morveau.
Regulus of syderite.

Pyro-lignite.

Pyro-lignis, tis. f. m.

{ Salt formed by the union of
the pyro-ligneous acid with dif-
ferent bases.
These salts had no name in
the old Nomenclature.

Pyro-lignite of alumina.

Pyro-lignis aluminosus.

Pyro-lignite of ammoniac.

Pyro-lignis ammoniacalis.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Pyro-lignite of antimony.

Pyro-lignis stibii.

Pyro-lignite of silver.

Pyro-lignis argenti.

Pyro-lignite of arsenic.

Pyro-lignis arsenicalis.

Pyro-lignite of barytes.

Pyro-lignis baryticus.

Pyro-lignite of bismuth.

Pyro-lignis bismuthi.

Pyro-lignite of lime.

Pyro-lignis calcareus.

Pyro-lignite of cobalt.

Pyro-lignis cobalti.

Pyro-lignite of copper.

Pyro-lignis cupri.

Pyro-lignite of tin.

Pyro-lignis stanni

Pyro-lignite of iron.

Pyro-lignis ferri.

Pyro-lignite of magnesia.

Pyro-lignis magnesiæ.

Pyro-lignite of manganese.

Pyro-lignis magnesi.

Pyro-lignite of mercury.

Pyro-lignis hydrargyri.

Pyro-lignite of molybdena.

Pyro-lignis molybdeni.

Pyro-lignite of nickel.

Pyro-lignis niccoli.

Pyro-lignite of gold.

Pyro-lignis auri.

Pyro-lignite of platina.

Pyro-lignis platini.

Pyro-lignite of lead.

Pyro-lignis plumbi.

Pyro-lignite of potash.

Pyro-lignis potassæ.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Pyro-lignite of soda.

Pyro-lignis sodæ.

Pyro-lignite of tungsten.

Pyro-lignis tungsteni.

Pyro-lignite of zinc.

Pyro-lignis zinci.

Pyro-mucitos.

Pyro-mucis, tis, f. m.

{ Salts formed by the union
of the pyro-mucous acid with
different bases.
This species of salts has not
yet obtained a name in the old
Nomenclature.

Pyro-mucite of alumina.

Pyro-mucis aluminosus.

Pyro-mucite of ammoniac.

Pyro-mucis ammoniacalis.

Pyro-mucite of antimony.

Pyro-mucis stibii.

Pyro-mucite of silver.

Pyro-mucis argenti.

Pyro-mucite of arsenic.

Pyro-mucis arsenicalis.

Pyro-mucite of barytes.

Pyro-mucis baryticus.

Pyro-mucite of bismuth.

Pyro mucis bismuthi.

Pyro-mucite of lime.

Pyro-mucis calcareus.

Pyro-mucite of cobalt.

Pyro-mucis cobalti.

Pyro-mucite of copper.

Pyro-mucis cupri.

Pyro-mucite of tin.

Pyro-mucis stanni.

Pyro-mucite of iron.

Pyro-mucis ferri.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Pyro-mucite of magnesia.

Pyro-mucis magnesiæ.

Pyro-mucite of manganese,

Pyro-mucis magnesi.

Pyro-mucite of mercury.

Pyro-mucis hydrargyri.

Pyro-mucite of molybdena,

Pyro-mucis molybdeni.

Pyro-mucite of nickel,

Pyro-mucis niccoli.

Pyro-mucite of gold.

Pyro-mucis auri.

Pyro-mucite of platina.

Pyro-mucis platini.

Pyro-mucite of lead.

Pyro-mucis plumbi.

Pyro-mucite of potash.

Pyro-mucis potassæ.

Pyro-mucite of soda.

Pyro-mucis sodæ.

Pyro-mucite of tungsten,

Pyro-mucis tungsteni.

Pyro-mucite of zinc,

Pyro-mucis zinci.

Pyro-tartarites,

Pyro-tartaris, tis. s. m.

Pyro-tartarite of alumina,

Pyro-tartaris aluminosus.

Pyro-tartarite of ammoniac.

Pyro-tartaris ammoniacalis.

Pyro-tartarite of antimony.

Pyro-tartaris stibii.

Pyro-tartarite of silver.

Pyro-tartaris argenti.

Pyro-tartarite of arsenic,

Pyro-tartaris arsenicalis.

{ Salts formed by the union
of the pyro-tartareous acid
with different bases.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES

- Pyro-tartarite of barytes.
Pyro-tartaris baryticus.
- Pyro-tartarite of bismuth.
Pyro-tartaris bismuthi.
- Pyro-tartarite of lime.
Pyro-tartaris calcareus.
- Pyro-tartarite of cobalt.
Pyro-tartaris cobalti.
- Pyro-tartarite of copper,
Pyro-tartaris cupri.
- Pyro-tartarite of tin.
Pyro-tartaris stanni.
- Pyro-tartarite of iron.
Pyro-tartaris ferri.
- Pyro-tartarite of magnesia.
Pyro-tartaris magnesiae.
- Pyro-tartarite of manganese.
Pyro-tartaris manganesi.
- Pyro-tartarite of mercury.
Pyro-tartaris hydrargyri.
- Pyro-tartarite of molybdena.
Pyro-tartaris molybdeni.
- Pyro-tartarite of nickel.
Pyro tartaris niccoli.
- Pyro-tartarite of gold.
Pyro-tartaris auri.
- Pyro-tartarite of platina.
Pyro-tartaris platini.
- Pyro-tartarite of lead.
Pyro-tartaris plumbi.
- Pyro-tartarite of potash.
Pyro-tartaris potassae.
- Pyro-tartarite of soda.
Pyro-tartaris sodae.
- Pyro-tartarite of tungsten.
Pyro-tartaris tungsteni.
- Pyro-tartarite of zinc.
Pyro-tartaris zinci.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Platina.

Platinum.

{ *Juan blanca.*
Platina.
Platina del pinto.

Potash.

Potassa, æ.

{ *Vegetable caustic fixed alkali.*

Potash, melted.

Potassa fusa.

{ *Lapis causticus.*

Potash, siliceous fluid.

Potassa silicea fluida.

{ *Liquor of flints.*

Prussiate.

Prussias, tis. f. m.

{ Salts formed by the union of
the Prussic acid, or colouring
matter of Prussian blue, with
different bases.
This genus of salts had no
name in the old Nomenclature,

Prussiate of alumina.

Prussias aluminosus.

Prussiate of ammoniac.

Prussias ammoniacalis.

Prussiate of antimony.

Prussias stibii.

Prussiate of silver.

Prussias argenti.

Prussiate of arsenic.

Prussias arsenicalis.

Prussiate of barytes.

Prussias baryticus.

Prussiate of bismuth.

Prussias bismuthi.

Prussiate of lime.

Prussias calcareus.

{ *Calcareous prussiate.*
Prussian lime-water.

Prussiate of cobalt.

Prussias cobulti.

Prussiate of copper.

Prussias cupri.

Prussiate of tin.

Prussias stanni.

NEW NAMES.

P

OLD NAMES.

Prussiate of iron. <i>Prussias ferri.</i>	{	<i>Prussian blue.</i>
		<i>Berlin blue.</i>
Prussiate of magnesia. <i>Prussias magnesiæ.</i>		
Prussiate of manganese. <i>Prussias magnesiæ.</i>		
Prussiate of mercury. <i>Prussias hydrargyri.</i>		
Prussiate of molybdena, <i>Prussias molybdeni.</i>		
Prussiate of nickel. <i>Prussias niccoli.</i>		
Prussiate of gold. <i>Prussias auri.</i>		
Prussiate of platina. <i>Prussias platini.</i>		
Prussiate of lead. <i>Prussias plumbi.</i>		
Prussiate of potash. <i>Prussias potassæ.</i>	{	<i>Liquor saturated with the colouring part of Prussian blue.</i>
Prussiate, ferruginous saturated, of potash. <i>Prussias potassæ ferruginosus saturatus.</i>	{	<i>Prussian alkali.</i>
Prussiate, ferruginous, not saturated, of potash. <i>Prussias potassæ ferruginosus non saturatus.</i>	{	<i>Phlogisticated alkali.</i>
Prussiate of soda. <i>Prussias sodæ.</i>		
Pyrophorus of Homberg. <i>Pyrophorum Hombergii.</i>	{	<i>Pyrophorus of Homberg.</i>

R

Resins. <i>Resinæ.</i>	{	<i>Resins.</i>
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NEW NAMES.

OLD NAMES.

S

Saccho-late.

Saccholas, tis. f. m.

Salts formed by the union of the saccho-lactic acid with different bases.

This species of salts has no name in the old Nomenclature.

Saccho-late of alumina.

Saccholas aluminosus.

Saccho-late of ammoniac.

Saccholas ammoniacalis.

Saccho-late of antimony.

Saccholas stibii.

Saccho-late of silver.

Saccholas argenti.

Saccho-late of arsenic.

Saccholas arsenicalis.

Saccho-late of barytes.

Saccholas baryticus.

Saccho-late of bismuth.

Saccholas bismuthi.

Saccho-late of lime.

Saccholas calcareus.

Saccho-late of cobalt.

Saccholas cobalti.

Saccho-late of copper.

Saccholas cupri.

Saccho-late of tin.

Saccholas stanni.

Saccho-late of iron.

Saccholas ferri.

Saccho-late of magnesia.

Saccholas magnesiæ.

Saccho-late of manganese.

Saccholas magnesiæ.

Saccho-late of mercury.

Saccholas hydrargyri.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Saccho-late of molybdena.

Saccholas molybdeni.

Saccho-late of nickel.

Saccholas niccoli.

Saccho-late of gold.

Saccholas auri.

Saccho-late of platina.

Saccholas platini.

Saccho-late of lead.

Saccholas plumbi.

Saccho-late of potash.

Saccholas potassæ.

Saccho-late of soda.

Saccholas sodæ.

Saccho-late of tungsten.

Saccholas tungsteni.

Saccho-late of zinc.

Saccholas zinci.

Saponulæ.

Saponuli.

Saponulæ, acid.

Saponuli acidi.

Saponula of alumina.

Saponulus aluminosus.

Saponula, ammoniacal.

Saponulus ammoniacalis.

Saponula of barytes.

Saponulus barytæ.

Saponula of lime.

Saponulus calcareus.

Saponula of potash.

Saponulus potassæ.

Saponulæ of soda.

Saponuli sodæ.

Saponulæ, metallic.

Saponuli metallici.

{ Combinations of volatile or essential oils with different bases.

{ Combinations of volatile or essential oils with different acids.

{ Soap composed of volatile oil, combined with the base of alum.

{ Soap composed of volatile oil, combined with ammoniac.

{ Soap composed of volatile oil, combined with barytes.

{ Soap composed of volatile oil, combined with lime.

{ Soap composed of volatile oil, combined with potash, or soap of Starkey.

{ Soaps composed of volatile oils, combined with fixed mineral alkali, or soda.

{ Soaps composed of volatile oils, united to metallic substances.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sebate.

Sebas, tis. f. m.

Salts formed by the union of the acid of grease, or the sebatic acid, with different bases.

These salts have no name in the ancient Nomenclature.

Sebate of alumina.

Sebas aluminosus.

Sebate of ammoniac.

Sebas ammoniacalis.

Sebate of antimony.

Sebas stibii.

Sebate of silver.

Sebas argenti.

Sebate of arsenic.

Sebas arsenicalis.

Sebate of barytes.

Sebas baryticus.

Sebate of bismuth.

Sebas bismuthi.

Sebate of lime.

Sebas calcareus.

Sebate of cobalt.

Sebas cobalti.

Sebate of copper.

Sebas cupri.

Sebate of tin.

Sebas stanni.

Sebate of iron.

Sebas ferri.

Sebate of magnesia.

Sebas magnesiæ.

Sebate of manganese.

Sebas magnesiæ.

Sebate of mercury.

Sebas hydrargyri.

Sebate of molybdena.

Sebas molybdeni.

New Chemical Nomenclature.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sebate of nickel.

Sebas niccoli.

Sebate of gold.

Sebas auri.

Sebate of platina.

Sebas platini.

Sebate of lead.

Sebas plumbi.

Sebate of potash.

Sebas potassæ.

Sebate of soda.

Sebas sodæ.

Sebate of tungsten.

Sebas tungsteni.

Sebate of zinc.

Sebas zinci.

Semi-metals.

Semi-metals.

Silices, or siliceous earth.

Silica, terra silicea.

{ *Quartzose earth.*
Siliceous earth.
Vitrifiable earth.

Silver.

Argentum.

{ *Diana.*
Luna.
Silver.

Soaps.

Sapones.

{ Combinations of fat or fixed
{oils with different bases.

Soaps, acid.

Sapones acidi.

{ Combinations of fat or fixed
{oils with different acids.

Soap of alumina.

Sapo aluminosus.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil,
{combined with alumina.

Soap, ammoniacal.

Sapo ammoniacalis.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil,
{combined with volatile alkali.

Soap of barytes.

Sapo baryticus.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil,
{combined with barytes.

Soap of lime.

Sapo calcareus.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil,
{combined with lime.

Soap of magnesia.

Sapo magnesiæ.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil,
{combined with magnesia.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Soap of potash.

Sapo potassæ.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil, combined with fixed vegetable alkali.

Soap of soda.

Sapo sodæ.

{ Soap composed of fixed oil, combined with fixed mineral alkali.

Soaps, metallic.

Sapones metallici.

{ Combinations of fat or fixed oils with metallic substances.

Soda.

Soda.{ *Caustic soda.*
Marine alkali.
Mineral alkali.

Starch.

Amylum.{ *Starch.*

Steel.

Chalybs.{ *Steel.*

Succinate.

Succinas, tis. f. m.

{ Salts formed by the combination of the succinic acid with different bases.

Succinate of alumina.

Succinas aluminosus.

Succinate of ammoniac.

Succinas ammoniacalis.

Succinate of antimony.

Succinas stibii.

Succinate of arsenic.

Succinas arsenicalis.

Succinate of barytes.

Succinas baryticus.

Succinate of bismuth.

Succinas bismuthi.

Succinate of lime.

Succinas calcareus.

Succinate of cobalt.

Succinas cobalti.

Succinate of copper.

Succinas cupri.

Succinate of tin.

Succinas stanni.

Succinate of iron,

Succinas ferri.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Succinate of magnesia.

Succinas magnesiæ.

Succinate of manganese.

Succinas magnesi.

Succinate of mercury.

Succinas hydrargyri.

Succinate of molybdena.

Succinas molybdeni.

Succinate of nickel.

Succinas niccoli.

Succinate of gold.

Succinas auri.

Succinate of platina.

Succinas platinæ.

Succinate of lead.

Succinas plumbi.

Succinate of potash.

Succinas potassæ.

Succinate of soda.

Succinas sodæ.

Succinate of tungsten.

Succinas tungsteni.

Succinate of zinc.

Succinas zinci.

Succinum, or amber.

Succinum.

Karabeum.
Yellow amber.
Amber.

Sugar.

Saccharum.

Sugar.

Sugar, crystallised.

Saccharum crystallisatum.

Sugar candy.

Sugar of milk.

Saccharum lactis.

Sugar of milk.
Salt of milk.

NEW NAMES:

S

OLD NAMES.

Sulphates.

Sulphas, tis. f. m.

{ Salts formed by the combination of the sulphuric acid with different bases.

Sulphate of alumina.

Sulphas aluminosus.{ Alum.
{ Argillaceous vitriol.

Sulphate, ammoniacal.

Sulphas ammoniacalis.{ Ammoniacal vitriolic salt.
{ Ammoniacal salt (a secret of Glauber's).
{ Ammoniacal vitriol.

Sulphate of antimony.

Sulphas stibii.

{ Vitriol of antimony.

Sulphate of silver.

Sulphas argenti.{ Vitriol of silver.
{ Vitriol of Luna.

Sulphate of arsenic.

Sulphas arsenicalis.

{ Vitriol of arsenic.

Sulphate of barytes.

Sulphas baryticus.{ Ponderous spar.
{ Barotic vitriol.

Sulphate of bismuth.

Sulphas bismuthi.

{ Vitriol of bismuth.

Sulphate of lime.

Sulphas calcareus.{ Vitriol of lime.
{ Calcareous vitriol.
{ Selenite.
{ Gypsum.

Sulphate of cobalt.

Sulphas cobalti.

{ Vitriol of cobalt.

Sulphate of copper.

Sulphas cupri.{ Vitriol of Cyprus.
{ Blue vitriol.
{ Vitriol of copper, or of Venus.
{ Blue copperas.

Sulphate of tin.

Sulphas stanni.

{ Vitriol of tin.

Sulphate of iron.

Sulphas ferri.{ Martial vitriol.
{ Green vitriol.
{ Vitriol of iron.
{ Green copperas.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sulphate of magnesia.

Sulphas magnesiæ.

{ *Magnesian vitriol.*
Bitter cathartic salt.
Epsom salt.
Salt (de canal).
Salt of Seydshutz.
Salt of Sedlitz.

Sulphate of manganese.

Sulphas magnesiæ.

} *Vitriol of manganese.*

Sulphate of mercury.

Sulphas hydrargyri.

} *Vitriol of mercury.*

Sulphate of molybdena.

Sulphas molybdeni.

Sulphate of nickel.

Sulphas niccoli.

Sulphate of gold.

Sulphas auri.

Sulphate of platina.

Sulphas platini.

Sulphate of lead.

Sulphas plumbi.

} *Vitriol of lead.*

Sulphate of potash.

Sulphas potassæ.

{ *Vitriol of potash.*
Sal de duobus.
Vitriolated tartar.
Arcanum duplicatum.
Sal polychrest of Glauber.

Sulphate of soda.

Sulphas sodæ.

} *Glauber's salt.*
Vitriol of soda.

Sulphate of tungsten.

Sulphas tungsteni.

Sulphate of zinc.

Sulphas zinci.

{ *Vitriol of zinc.*
White vitriol.
Gossard's vitriol.
White copperas.

Sulphite.

Sulphis, tis.

{ Salt formed by the combination of the sulphureous acid with different bases.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sulphite of alumina.

Sulphis aluminosus.

Sulphite of ammoniac.

Sulphis ammoniacalis.

Sulphite of antimony.

Sulphis stibii.

Sulphite of silver.

Sulphis argenti.

Sulphite of arsenic.

Sulphis arsenicalis.

Sulphite of barytes.

Sulphis baryticus.

Sulphite of bismuth.

Sulphis bismuthi.

Sulphite of lime.

Sulphis calcareus.

Sulphite of cobalt.

Sulphis cobalti.

Sulphite of copper.

Sulphis cupri.

Sulphite of tin.

Sulphis stanni.

Sulphite of iron.

Sulphis ferri.

Sulphite of magnesia.

Sulphis magnesiæ.

Sulphite of manganese.

Sulphis magnesiæ.

Sulphite of mercury.

Sulphis hydrargyri.

Sulphite of molybdena.

Sulphis molybdeni.

Sulphite of nickel.

Sulphis niccoli.

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sulphite of gold. <i>Sulphis auri.</i>	
Sulphite of platina. <i>Sulphis platini.</i>	
Sulphite of lead. <i>Sulphis plumbi.</i>	
Sulphite of potash. <i>Sulphis potassæ.</i>	} Sulphureous salt of Stahl.
Sulphite of soda. <i>Sulphis sodæ.</i>	
Sulphite of tungsten. <i>Sulphis tungsteni.</i>	
Sulphite of zinc. <i>Sulphis zinci.</i>	
Sulphur. <i>Sulphur.</i>	} Sulphur.
Sulphur, sublimated. <i>Sulphur sublimatum.</i>	
Sulphures, alkaline. <i>Sulphureta alkalina.</i>	} Alkaline liver of sulphur. } Alkaline hepars.
Sulphure of alumina. <i>Sulphuretum aluminæ.</i>	
Sulphure, ammoniacal. <i>Sulphuretum ammoniacale.</i>	{ Fuming liquor of Boyle. } Volatile alkaline liver of sulphur.
Sulphure of antimony. <i>Sulphuretum stibii.</i>	
Sulphure, native, of antimony. <i>Sulphuretum stibii nativum.</i>	} Ore of antimony.
Sulphure of silver. <i>Sulphuretum argenti.</i>	
Sulphure of barytes. <i>Sulphuretum barytæ.</i>	} Barotic liver of sulphur.
Sulphure of bismuth. <i>Sulphuretum bismuthi.</i>	

NEW NAMES.	S	OLD NAMES.
Sulphure, calcareous. <i>Sulphuretum calcareum.</i>		{ <i>Calcareous liver of sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of cobalt. <i>Sulphuretum cobalti.</i>		
Sulphure of copper. <i>Sulphuretum cupri.</i>		{ <i>Pyrites of copper.</i>
Sulphure of tin. <i>Sulphuretum stanni.</i>		
Sulphure of iron. <i>Sulphuretum ferri.</i>		{ <i>Martial pyrites.</i>
Sulphure of fixed oil. <i>Sulphuretum olei fixi.</i>		{ <i>Balsam of sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of volatile oil. <i>Sulphuretum olei volatilis.</i>		{ <i>Magnesian liver of sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of magnesia. <i>Sulphuretum magnesiæ.</i>		{ <i>Liver of magnesian sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of manganese. <i>Sulphuretum magnesi.</i>		
Sulphure of mercury. <i>Sulphuretum hydrargyri.</i>		
Sulphures, metallic. <i>Sulphureta metallica.</i>		{ <i>Combinations of sulphur with metals.</i>
Sulphure of molybdena. <i>Sulphuretum molybdeni.</i>		
Sulphure of nickel. <i>Sulphuretum niccoli.</i>		
Sulphure of gold. <i>Sulphuretum auri.</i>		
Sulphure of platina. <i>Sulphuretum platini.</i>		
Sulphure of lead. <i>Sulphuretum plumbi.</i>		
Sulphure of potash. <i>Sulphuretum potassæ.</i>		{ <i>Liver of sulphur with a base of vegetable alkali.</i>

NEW NAMES.

S

OLD NAMES.

Sulphure, antimoniated, of potash. <i>Sulphuretum potassæ stibiatum.</i>	}	<i>Antimoniated liver of sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of soda. <i>Sulphuretum sodæ.</i>	}	<i>Liver of sulphur with a base of fixed mineral alkali.</i>
Sulphure, antimoniated, of soda. <i>Sulphuretum sodæ stibiatum.</i>	}	<i>Antimoniated liver of sulphur.</i>
Sulphure of tungsten. <i>Sulphuretum tungsteni.</i>		
Sulphure of zinc. <i>Sulphuretum zinci.</i>	}	<i>Blende, or false galena.</i>
Sulphures, earthy. <i>Sulphureta terrea.</i>	}	<i>Earthy livers of sulphur.</i> <i>Earthy hepars.</i>

T

Tartar. <i>Tartarus.</i>	}	<i>Crude tartar.</i>
Tartarite. <i>Tartaris, tis, f. m.</i>	{	Salt formed by the combination of the tartareous acid with different bases.
Tartarite, acidulous, of potash. <i>Tartaris acidulus potassæ.</i>	{	<i>Tartar.</i> <i>Cream of tartar.</i> <i>Cryszals of tartar.</i>
Tartarite of alumina. <i>Tartaris aluminosus.</i>		
Tartarite of ammoniac. <i>Tartaris ammoniacalis.</i>	}	<i>Ammoniacal tartar.</i> <i>Tartareous ammoniacal salt.</i>
Tartarite of antimony. <i>Tartaris stibij.</i>		

NEW NAMES.

T

OLD NAMES.

Tartarite of silver.

Tartaris argenti.

Tartarite of arsenic.

Tartaris arsenicalis.

Tartarite of barytes.

Tartaris baryticus.

Tartarite of bismuth.

Tartaris bismuthi.

Tartarite of lime.

Tartaris calcareus.} *Calcareous Tartar.*

Tartarite of cobalt.

Tartaris cobalti.

Tartarite of copper.

Tartaris cupri.

Tartarite of tin.

Tartaris stanni.

Tartarite of iron.

Tartaris ferri.

Tartarite of magnesia.

Tartaris magnesiæ.

Tartarite of manganese.

Tartaris magnesiæ.

Tartarite of mercury.

Tartaris hydrargyri.

Tartarite of molybdena.

Tartaris molybdæni.

Tartarite of nickel.

Tartaris niccoli.

Tartarite of gold.

Tartaris auri.

Tartarite of platina.

Tartaris platini.

NEW NAMES.

T

OLD NAMES.

Tartarite of lead.
Tartaris plumbi.

} Saturnine tartar.

Tartarite of potash.
Tartaris potassæ.

{ Soluble tartar.
Tartarized tartar.
Tartar of potash.
Vegetable salt.

Tartarite, antimoniated, of potash.
Tartaris potassæ stibiatus.

{ Stibiated tartar.
Tartar emetic.
Antimoniated tartar.
Emetic.

Tartarite, ferruginous, of potash.
Tartaris potassæ ferrugineus.

{ Chalybeated tartar.
Soluble martial tartar.

Tartarite of potash, composed
of antimony.
Tartaris potassæ stibiatus.

} Tartarized tartar, containing
antimony.

Tartarite of soda.
Tartaris sodæ.

{ Tartar of soda.
Polychrest salt of Rochelle.
Salt of Seignette.

Tartarite of tungsten.
Tartaris tungsteni.

Tartarite of zinc.
Tartaris zinci.

Tin.
Stannum.

{ Tin.
Jupiter.

Tunstate.
Tunstas, tis. s. m.

{ Salt formed by the combination of the tunstic acid with different bases.
This genus of salt has no name in the old Nomenclature.

Tunstate of alumina.
Tunstas aluminosus.

Tunstate of ammoniac.
Tunstas ammoniacalis.

Tunstate of antimony.
Tunstas stibii.

NEW NAMES.

T

OLD NAMES.

Tunstate of silver.

Tunstas argenti.

Tunstate of arsenic.

Tunstas arsenicalis.

Tunstate of barytes.

Tunstas baryticus.

Tunstate of bismuth.

Tunstas bismuthi.

Tunstate of lime.

Tunstas calcareus.

Tunstate of cobalt.

Tunstas cobalti.

Tunstate of copper.

Tunstas cupri.

Tunstate of tin.

Tunstas stanni.

Tunstate of iron.

Tunstas ferri.

Tunstate of magnesia.

Tunstas magnesiæ.

Tunstate of manganese.

Tunstas magnesiæ.

Tunstate of mercury.

Tunstas hydrargyri.

Tunstate of molybdena.

Tunstas molybdeni.

Tunstate of nickel.

Tunstas niccoli.

Tunstate of gold.

Tunstas auri.

Tunstate of platina.

Tunstas platini.

Tunstate of lead.

Tunstas plumbi.

NEW NAMES.

T

OLD NAMES.

Tunstate of potash.

Tunſtas potaſſæ.

Tunstate of ſoda.

Tunſtas ſodæ.

Tunstate of tungſten.

Tunſtas tunſteni.

Tunstate of zinc.

Tunſtas zinci.

W

Water.

Water.

Water, lime.

Lime-water.

Water, diſtilled.

Diſtilled water.

Waters impregnated with
carbonic acid.

{ *Acidulous waters.*
 Gazeous waters.

Waters, ſulphurated.

Hepatic waters,

Z

Zinc.

F I N I S.

I N D E X.

A

	Vol.	Pag.
ACIDS, - - - - -	I.	341.
—— action of, a characteristic of stones,	I.	197.
—— concrete sulphuric, - - -	I.	387.
Acid, acetic, - - - - -	III.	137.
—— benzoic, - - - - -	II.	633.
—— bombic, - - - - -	III.	288.
—— boracic, - - - - -	I.	388.
—— ——— found on Lakes in Tuscany, -	I.	388.
—— carbonic, - - - - -	I.	342.
—— citric, - - - - -	II.	621.
—— cretaceous, - - - - -	I.	342.
—— fluoric, - - - - -	I.	359.
—— formic, - - - - -	III.	282.
—— fuming muriatic, - - - - -	I.	352.
—— gallic, - - - - -	II.	626.
—— lactic, - - - - -	III.	177.
—— lithic, - - - - -	III.	229.
—— malic, - - - - -	II.	631.
—— marine, - - - - -	I.	452.
—— mephitic, - - - - -	I.	342.
—— molybdic, - - - - -	II.	200.
—— muriatic, - - - - -	I.	352.
—— nitric, - - - - -	I.	364.

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— nitrous, - - -	I.	365.
— of arsenic, - - -	II.	186.
— oxalic, - - -	II.	659.
— oxygenated muriatic, - -	I.	357.
— phosphoric, - - -	III.	245.
— phosphorous, - - -	III.	151.
— pyro-ligneous, - - -	III.	7.
— pyro-mucous, - - -	III.	3.
— pyro-tartareous, - - -	III.	2.
— sulphuric, - - -	I.	378.
— tunstic, - - -	II.	207.
Acidulum, tartareous, - -	II.	639.
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— — — Geoffroy's table of, - -	I.	66.
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— — — reciprocal, - - -	I.	68.
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— Boyle's discoveries concerning, -	I.	32.
— Hales' discoveries concerning, -	I.	32.
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Alkalis, - - -	I.	328.
Alteration by fire, a characteristic of stones, -	I.	195.
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Aluminous earth, its properties, - -	I.	179.
Amber, - - -	II.	572.
— — — volatile salt of, - - -	II.	577.
Ambergrise, - - -	III.	274.
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— — — M. Berthollet's experiments concern- ing the composition of, -	I.	338.

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----- ammoniacal,	-	-	-	I.	474.
----- barytic,	-	-	-	II.	51.
----- calcareous,	-	-	-	I.	497.
----- magnesian,	-	-	-	II.	13.
----- mercurial,	-	-	-	II.	342.
----- of potash,	-	-	-	I.	448.
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C

Calamine,	-	-	-	II.	282.
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----- ammoniacal,	-	-	-	I.	347.
----- barytic,	-	-	-	II.	52.
----- magnesian,	-	-	-	II.	14.
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----- of soda,	-	-	-	I.	457.
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Propried by Messieurs DE MORVEAU, LAVOISIER, BERTHOLLET, and DE FOURCROY, in May 1787.

DENOMINATIONS newly appropriated to several Substances, which are more compound in their Nature, yet enter into new Combinations without being decomposed.																		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17		
New Name.	Mucous matter.	Gummy matter, or gluten.	Sugar.	Starch.	Fixed oil.	Volatile oil.	1 st iron, or arsenious principle.	Refin.	Extractive matter.	Extractional matter.	In which the arsenious nature dominates.	Refined, or in which the resin predominates.	Feculum.	Alcohol of wine.	Alcohol of amygd.	Nitrous Gas, or Nitric Acid.	Sulphuric Muriatic, &c.	Phlogisticated Air, or Sulphuric Acid.
1 st of name.	Mucous matter.	Gummy matter.	Saccharine matter.	Amylaceous matter.	Fat oil.	Essential oil.	Spiritous matter.	Resin.	Extractive matter.				Fecula.	Spirit of wine.		Diluted Spirit of Nitrous Gas, or Nitric Acid.	Essence of Sulphuric Muriatic, &c.	Muriatic, &c.

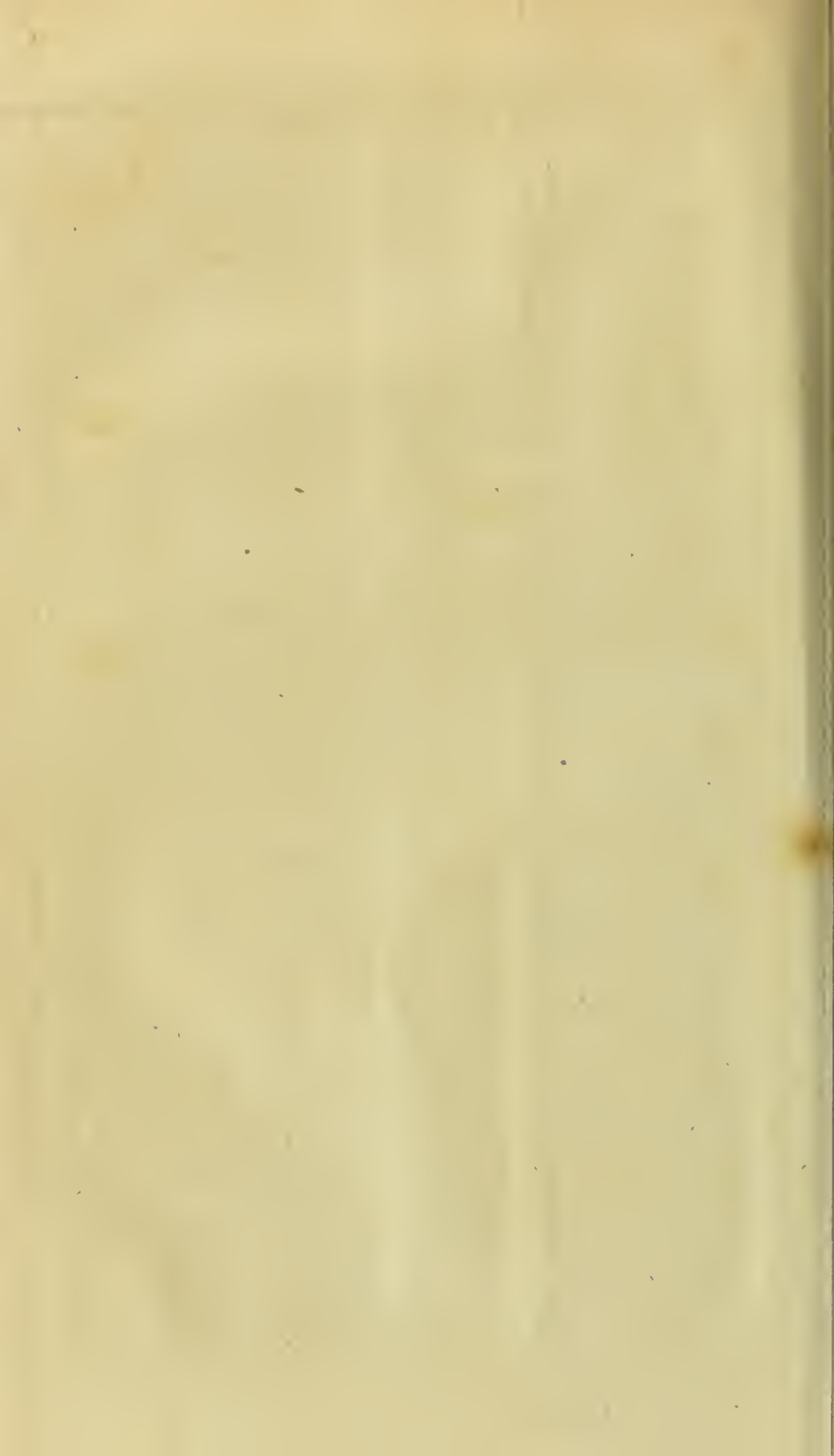


TABLE II.

Quadrupeds, divided according to the System of BRISSON.

		ORDERS.		SECTIONS.				GENERA.	
QUADRUPEDS,	Without teeth	—	I.	—	—	—	—	Ant-eater . . .	Myrmecophaga.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Manis . . .	Pholidotus.
		With grinders only	II.	—	—	—	—	Sloth . . .	Tardigradus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Armadillo . . .	Caluphratus.
		Grinders and canine teeth only	III.	—	—	—	—	Elephant . . .	Elephas.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Sea Cow . . .	Odobenus.
		—	IV.	Ruminant, ungulated; six incitive teeth	—	—	—	Camel . . .	Camelus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Camelopardalis . . .	Giraffa.
		Incisive teeth in the lower jaw only	V.	Ruminant, with cloven feet; eight incitive teeth.	Simple horns. { Turned upwards. { Fore legs longer than hinder legs Turned back { The legs of equal lengths Branched horns { No horns {	—	—	Goat . . .	Hircus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Sheep . . .	Ovis.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Ox . . .	Bos.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Stag . . .	Cervus.
		—	VI.	The hoof entire	—	—	—	Musk . . .	Tragulus.
		—	VII.	The hoof cloven	—	—	—	Horse . . .	Equus.
		Ungulated feet	VIII.	Three ungulated toes on each foot	—	—	—	Hog . . .	Sus.
		—	IX.	—	—	—	—	Rhinoceros . . .	Rhinoceros.
		—	X.	Four ungulated toes before, three behind,	Two incisive teeth in each jaw	—	—	River Hog . . .	Hydrochaeris.
		—	XI.	Four ungulated toes on each foot	Ten incisive teeth in each jaw	—	—	Tapir . . .	Tapirus.
	With teeth.	—	—	—	—	—	—	River Horse . . .	Hippopotamus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Porcupine . . .	Hystrix.
		Ungulated feet, and two incisive teeth in each jaw.	XII.	Without canine teeth	Spines on the body. { Tail flat and scaly Long ears Short tail { Short ears Flat Round Naked tail	—	—	Beaver . . .	Castor.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Hare . . .	Lepus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Coney . . .	Cuniculus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Squirrel . . .	Sciurus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Dormouse . . .	Glis.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Rat . . .	Mus.
		—	—	With canine teeth	Without spines on the body	—	—	Shrew Mouse . . .	Musaraneus.
		—	—	—	With spines	—	—	Hedge Hog . . .	Erinaceus.
		Four incisive teeth in each jaw.	XIII.	—	Separate toes	—	—	Monkey . . .	Sinica.
		—	—	—	Toes joined by a membrane so as to form wings	—	—	—	Pteropus.
		Four incisive teeth in the upper, and six in the lower jaw.	XIV.	—	—	—	—	Marmoset . . .	Prosimia.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Bat . . .	Vespertilio.
		Six incisive teeth in the upper, and four in the lower jaw.	XV.	—	—	—	—	Seal . . .	Phoca.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Hyæna . . .	Hyæna.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Dog . . .	Canis.
		Six incisive teeth in each jaw.	XVI.	The toes separate from each other.	Four toes on the fore, and five on the hinder feet Five toes on the fore, and four on the hinder feet Five toes on each foot, { First toe remote from the other First toe near the other Feet which rest on the heel in walking Hooked claws which may be drawn back and concealed	—	—	Weasel . . .	Mustela.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Badger . . .	Meles.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Bear . . .	Ursus.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Cat . . .	Felis.
		—	—	—	—	—	—	Otter . . .	Lutra.
		Six incisive teeth in the upper, and eight in the lower jaw.	XVII.	—	—	—	—	Mole . . .	Talpa.
		Ten incisive teeth in the upper, and eight in the lower jaw.	XVIII.	—	—	—	—	Opossum . . .	Philander.



		ORDERS.		SECTIONS.		GENERA.	
BIRDS ARE	The legs feathered as low as the calcaneum, or bone which sustains the toes.	Four toes all separate from each other, quite to their base.	Three toes before, and one behind.	I.	The beak straight; the upper mandible thickened, and somewhat curved at the point; the nostrils half-covered with a thick soft membrane. It consists of one genus only.		Pigeon Columba.
				II.	The beak conical and curved. It consists of six genera.	1. The head ornamented with appendices.	Turkey Gallus Pavo. Cock and Hen Gallus.
				III.	The beak short and crooked. It consists of five genera.	2. No appendices on the head.	Guinea Hen Meleagris. Grouse Lagopus. Partridge Perdix. Pheasant Phasianus. Hawk Accipiter. Eagle Aquila. Vulture Vultur.
				IV.	The beak long and conical. It consists of six genera.	1. The base of the beak covered with a naked skin.	Owl Aps. Ostrich Strix.
				V.	The beak straight; the upper mandible grooved on each side towards the point. It consists of four genera.	2. The base of the beak covered with feathers turned forwards.	Chough Coracia. Crow Corvus. Magpie Pica. Roller Galgulus. Oriole Icterus. Bird of Paradise Manucodlata.
				VI.	The beak straight, and the mandibles not grooved. It consists of two genera.	1. The feathers on the base of the beak turned forward, and covering the nostrils.	Butcher Bird Lanius. Thrush Turdus. Chatterer Cotinga.
				VII.	The beak slender, and rather bent. It consists of two genera.	2. The feathers at the base of the beak turned backward; the nostrils uncovered.	Fly-catcher Muscicapa.
				VIII.	The beak very small, flattened horizontally at its base, and bent at the point; the opening of the mouth appears larger than the head. It consists of two genera.	1. The beak convex above.	Deer-eater Buphagus. Starling Sturnus.
				IX.	The beak conical, and gradually diminishing to the point. It consists of eight genera.	2. The beak flattened horizontally towards the base, and nearly triangular.	Hoopoe Upupa. Promerops Promerops.
				X.	The beak awl-shaped. It consists of three genera.		Goat-sucker Caprimulgus. Swallow Hirundo.
				XI.	The beak wedge-shaped. It consists of one genus only.	1. The two mandibles straight.	Tanager Tangara. Goldfinch Carduelis. Sparrow Passer. Grobeak Coccothraupis. Bunting Emberiza. Ouly Colius. Bullfinch Pyrrhula. Crossbill Loxia.
				XII.	The beak filiform. It consists of three genera.	2. The two mandibles crossing each other.	Lark Alauda. Beccafico Ficedula. Tit-mouse Parus.
				XIII.	Consisting of nine genera.	1. The nostrils uncovered.	Nuthatch Sitta.
				XIV.	seven genera.	2. The nostrils covered by the feathers at the base of the beak.	Creeper Certhia. Humming Bird Polytmus. Noddy Noddy. Wryneck Troglodytes. Wood-pecker Picus. Jacamar Galbula. Barbet Bucco. Cuckoo Cuculus. Curucui Trogon. Ani Crotophaga. Parrot Psittacus.
				XV.	four genera.	1. The beak curved.	Toucan Tucana.
				XVI.	four genera.	2. The beak flattened horizontally, and a little enlarged at the point: the feet very short.	Rapier Rapier. Manakin Manacus. Motmot Motmotus.
				XVII.	eighteen genera.	3. The tongue very long and vermiform, but not longer than the beak.	King's-fisher Ibis. Osprey Osprey. Deer-eater Buphagus. Horabill Hydrocorax.
				XVIII.	three genera.	4. The beak long, and as thick as the head, indented like a saw; the point of each mandible turned downwards.	Oftrich Struthio.
				XIX.	one genus.	5. The beak short, and flattened laterally near the point.	
				XX.	three genera.	6. The beak conical, and indented like a saw; the end of each mandible bent downwards.	Rhea Rhea. Cajuarinus Cajuarinus.
				XXI.	three genera.	7. The beak straight, and of a moderate length.	Dodo Raphus.
				XXII.	one genus.	8. The beak thick, and formed like a scythe.	Builtard Otis.
				XXIII.	six genera.	9. Two toes before, none behind; the beak straight, somewhat flattened horizontally, and curved at the point; the upper part of the head bald & fleshy.	Long-Legs Himantopus. Oyster-catcher Ostrea. Plover Pluvialis. Lapwing Vanellus. Jacana Jacana.
				XXIV.	three genera.	10. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Turnstone Arenaria.
				XXV.	five genera.	11. The beak long and thick.	Pratincole Glareola. Rail Rallus. Sandpiper Tringa. Godwit Limosa. Woodcock Scolopax. Grouse Numenius.
XXVI.	three genera.	12. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Spoonbill Plataea.				
XXVII.	three genera.	13. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Shark Ciconia. Heron Ardea. Umbre Scopus.				
XXVIII.	three genera.	14. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Boat-bill Cochlearius.				
XXIX.	three genera.	15. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Crown Bird Balaerica.				
XXX.	three genera.	16. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Cassia Cassia. Screamer Anhimus.				
XXXI.	three genera.	17. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Gallinule Porphyrio.				
XXXII.	three genera.	18. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Water Hen Gallinula. Phalarope Phalaropus. Fulica Fulica.				
XXXIII.	three genera.	19. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Grebe Colymbus.				
XXXIV.	three genera.	20. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Gull Larus.				
XXXV.	three genera.	21. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Yern Sterna.				
XXXVI.	three genera.	22. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Booby Booby. Comorant Phalacrocorax. Pelican Onocrotalus.				
XXXVII.	three genera.	23. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Flamingo Phoenicopterus.				
XXXVIII.	three genera.	24. The beak short and thick, the upper mandible in the form of a spoon.	Avocet Avocetta. Courier Couriera. Corrila Corrila.				



OVI PAROUS
QUADRU PEDS.

CLASS I. The body covered with a shell. } Consisting of 15 species.
TORTOISES.

Genus I. Lizards }
which have the body } Consisting of 8 species.
somewhat tubercu-
lated, and the tail
flat.

Genus II. Lizards }
which have the tail } Consisting of 12 species.
verticillated.

CLASS II. The body
naked, with a tail.
LIZARDS.

Genus III. Lizards }
which have the tail } Consisting of 5 species.
round, scaly, and
shorter than the
body.

Genus IV. Lizards }
which have the tail } Consisting of 17 species.
round, scaly, and
longer than the bo-
dy.

Genus V. Lizards }
which have four } Consisting of 5 species.
toes on the fore-
fect, and the body
smooth.

Genus VI. Winged } The Dragon.
Lizards.

Genus I. Toads ; }
the body round, } Consisting of 14 species.
and tuberculated,
the legs short.

CLASS III. The body
naked, without a tail.

Genus II. Frogs }
which have the } Consisting of 11 species.
body long.

Genus III. Frogs }
which have the } Consisting of 9 species.
toes terminating
in a broad flat sur-
face.



TABLE V. *A Systematic Table of Oviparous Quadrupeds, by M. DE LA CEPEDE.*

		DIVISIONS.	
CLASS I. Oviparous Quadrupeds, having a tail.	Genus I. TORTOISES. The body covered with a shell.	I. The toes are very unequal, and assume, towards the extremities, the form of fins.	It consists of 6 species.
		II. The toes very short, and nearly equal.	It consists of 18 species.
		I. The tail flat, and five toes on the fore-feet.	It consists of 11 species.
		II. The tail round, five toes on each foot, and scales rising on the back in the form of a crest.	It consists of 5 species.
		III. The tail round, five toes on the fore-feet, and scaly stripes running across the belly.	It consists of 7 species.
		IV. The tail round, and five toes on the fore-feet, but no scaly stripes under the belly.	It consists of 21 species.
	Genus II. LIZARDS. The body not covered with a shell.	V. The under part of the toes covered with scales, rising one over another, like scales on the roof of a house.	It consists of 3 species.
		VI. Three toes on both the fore and the hinder feet.	It consists of 2 species.
		VII. Membranes, of the form of wings.	It consists of 1 species.
		VIII. Three or four toes on the fore-feet, and four or five toes on the hinder-feet.	It consists of 6 species.
CLASS II. Oviparous Quadrupeds, without a tail.	Genus I. FROGS. The head and body oblong, and either the one or the other angular.	— — — — —	It consists of 12 species.
	Genus II. The body oblong, and balls of viscid matter under the toes.	— — — — —	It consists of 7 species.
	Genus III. The body bloated and round.	— — — — —	It consists of 14 species.
	TWO-FOOTED REPTILES. — — —	I. Two fore-feet. II. Two hinder-feet.	It consists of 1 species. It consists of 1 species.

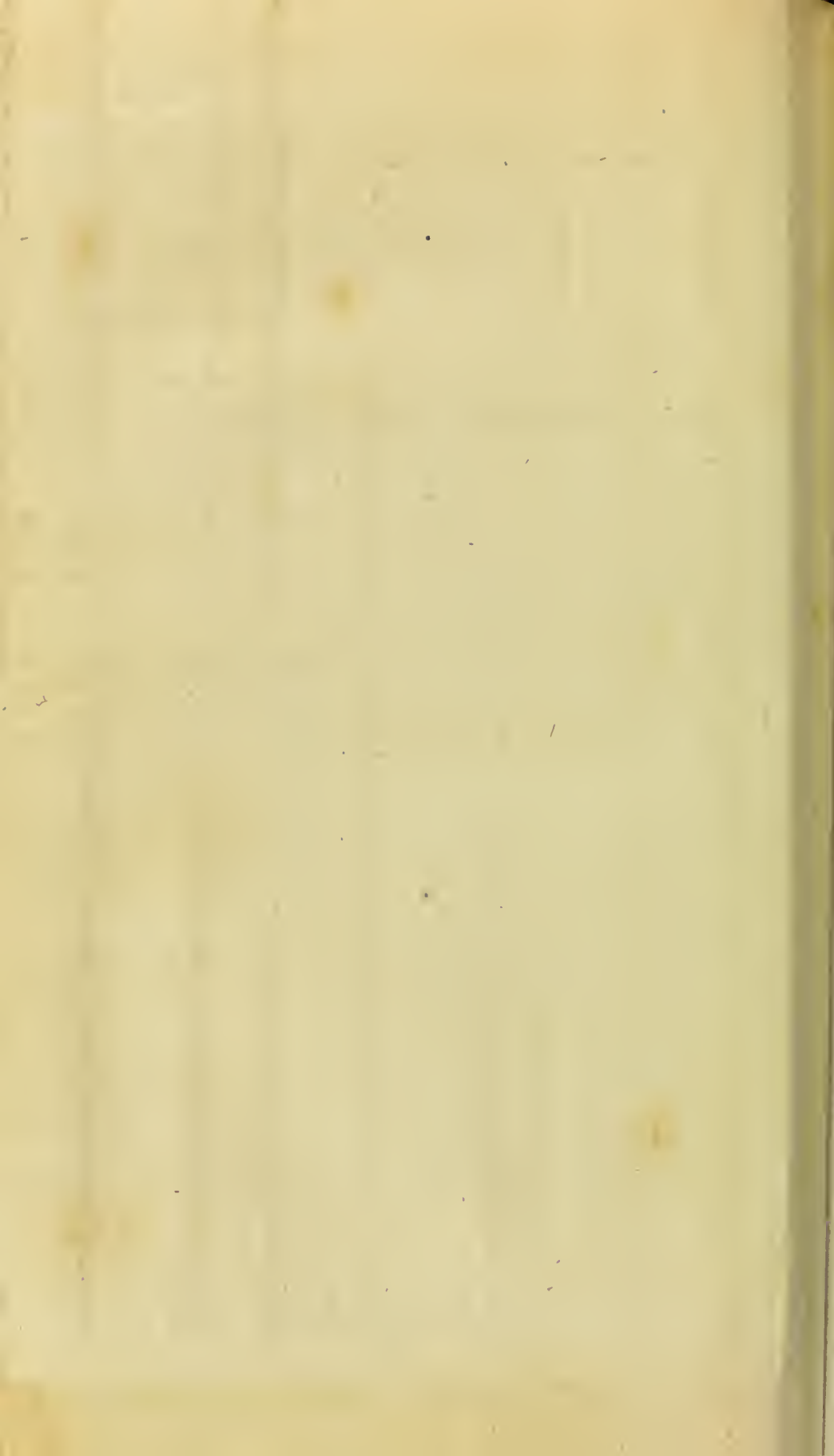


TABLE VI.

The Division of Serpents, by DAUBENTON.

S E R P E N T S .

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| Genus I. Rattle-snakes; or such as have a Rattle
at the extremity of the tail.
Crotalus, Linnæi. | } | It consists of four species. |
| Genus II. Serpents which have large scales (Scuta) be-
neath the body and tail; without a Rattle.
Boa, Linn. | } | It consists of ten species. |
| Genus III. Serpents which have large scales (Scuta) be-
neath the body, and small scales (Squamæ)
beneath the tail.
Coluber, Linn. | } | It consists of ninety-six species. |
| Genus IV. Serpents which have small scales beneath
the body and tail.
Anguis, Linn. | } | It consists of thirteen species. |
| Genus V. Serpents which have the body divided into
annuli or rings.
Amphibæna, Linn. | } | It consists of two species. |
| Genus VI. Serpents which have the skin naked smooth. | } | It consists of two species.
Cæcilia, Linn. |



FISHES HAVE	EITHER The gills perfect.	Class I. ACANTHOPTERYGII. The fins supported by small bones.	Order I. Apodes. The ventral fins wanting.	<table><tr><td>1.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Trichbiurus.</td></tr><tr><td>2.</td><td>Sword-fish</td><td>—</td><td>Xiphius.</td></tr><tr><td>3.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Ophidium.</td></tr></table>	1.	—	—	Trichbiurus.	2.	Sword-fish	—	Xiphius.	3.	—	—	Ophidium.																																																			
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	Order II. Jugulares. The belly-fins placed beneath the neck.	<table><tr><td>1.</td><td>Weever</td><td>—</td><td>Trachinus.</td></tr><tr><td>2.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Uranoscopus.</td></tr><tr><td>3.</td><td>Dragonet</td><td>—</td><td>Callionymus.</td></tr><tr><td>4.</td><td>Blenny</td><td>—</td><td>Blennius.</td></tr></table>	1.	Weever	—	Trachinus.	2.	—	—	Uranoscopus.	3.	Dragonet	—	Callionymus.	4.	Blenny	—	Blennius.																																																	
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OR The gills imperfect.	Class II. MALACOPTERYGII. The fins soft, and without bones.	Order III. Thoracici. The ventral fins placed beneath the breast.	<table><tr><td>1.</td><td>Goby</td><td>—</td><td>Gobius.</td></tr><tr><td>2.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Cepola.</td></tr><tr><td>3.</td><td>Dolphin</td><td>—</td><td>Coryphæna.</td></tr><tr><td>4.</td><td>Mackrel</td><td>—</td><td>Scomber.</td></tr><tr><td>5.</td><td>Wrasse</td><td>—</td><td>Labrus.</td></tr><tr><td>6.</td><td>Gilt-head</td><td>—</td><td>Sparus.</td></tr><tr><td>7.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Chætodon.</td></tr><tr><td>8.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Sciæna.</td></tr><tr><td>9.</td><td>Perch</td><td>—</td><td>Perca.</td></tr><tr><td>10.</td><td>Father Lasher</td><td>—</td><td>Scorpena.</td></tr><tr><td>11.</td><td>Surmullet</td><td>—</td><td>Mullus.</td></tr><tr><td>12.</td><td>Gurnard</td><td>—</td><td>Trigla.</td></tr><tr><td>13.</td><td>Bull-head</td><td>—</td><td>Cottus.</td></tr><tr><td>14.</td><td>Dorce</td><td>—</td><td>Zen.</td></tr><tr><td>15.</td><td>—</td><td>—</td><td>Trachipterus.</td></tr><tr><td>16.</td><td>Stickle-back</td><td>—</td><td>Gasterosteus.</td></tr></table>	1.	Goby	—	Gobius.	2.	—	—	Cepola.	3.	Dolphin	—	Coryphæna.	4.	Mackrel	—	Scomber.	5.	Wrasse	—	Labrus.	6.	Gilt-head	—	Sparus.	7.	—	—	Chætodon.	8.	—	—	Sciæna.	9.	Perch	—	Perca.	10.	Father Lasher	—	Scorpena.	11.	Surmullet	—	Mullus.	12.	Gurnard	—	Trigla.	13.	Bull-head	—	Cottus.	14.	Dorce	—	Zen.	15.	—	—	Trachipterus.	16.	Stickle-back	—	Gasterosteus.
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		GENUS.	
WORMS ARE	Section I. Naked Worms.	— — — —	{ 1. Gordius. 2. Lumbricus. 3. Afcarides. 4. Sanguifuga. 5. Limax. 6. Tania.
	Section II. Covered Worms.	Order I. With univalve shells.	{ 1. Patella. 2. Haliotis. 3. Tubulus. 4. Nautilus. 5. Cochlea. 6. Nerites. 7. Trochus. 8. Cilindrus. 9. Voluta. 10. Strombis. 11. Buccinum. 12. Murex. 13. Purpura. 14. Porcellana. 15. Globus.
			{ 1. Ostrea. 2. Chama. 3. Concha cordis. 4. Pecten. 5. Mytulus. 6. Solen.
		Order III. With polyvalve shells.	{ 1. Pholas. 2. Balanus. 3. Concha Anatifera. 4. Chiton.
	Section III. Crustaceous Worms.	— — — —	{ 1. Afterias. 2. Echinus.
	Section IV. Polypi.	Order I. Naked polypi.	{ 1. Hydra. 2. Urtica Marina.
		Order II. Polypi, in corneous or ligneous cells.	{ 1. Lithophyton. 2. Corallina.
		Order III. Polypi in cretaceous cells.	{ 1. Corallium. 2. Madreporc.
		Order IV. Polypi in soft and spongy cells.	{ 1. Eschara. 2. Spongia. 3. Alcyonium.





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$\frac{20}{4}$ 5.00
 $\frac{40}{49}$ 1.00
1.00

